The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 7, 1903.

The Week.

The dedication of the World's Fair in St. Louis on Thursday found it in a far more prominent position than was thought possible a year ago. Even in St. Louis there were many men of standing who took slowly to the idea of another world's fair, particularly when it was planned for one of the hottest of American cities, and perhaps the most corrupt. But as the time for the dedication has approached, there has been a remarkable growth in public interest, particularly in Europe. Able as the Exposition's advance European agent, ex-Gov. Francis, is, he would undoubtedly be ready to admit that the present zeal for the Fair on the other side of the Atlantic is by no means wholly due to his clever campaign. St. Louis was fortunate in undertaking an Exposition at a time when every nation in Europe is anxious to propitiate the United States. Russia has just officially assured us that there is no nation whose trade she solicits half as earnestly as ours. The German Emperor's desire to stand well with us has had many illustrations; and the Prince of Wales has expressed the wish of the English to pay a compliment to their American cousins by sending a splendid exhibit to St. Louis. So far as this country is concerned, the extraordinary period of industrial expansion through which we have been passing insures some remarkable displays of progress in the arts and crafts. In the matter of sculpture, too, the St. Louis Fair is likely to outdo all its predecessors. But it is evident that the city must make use of the year which is to elapse before the actual opening to provide adequate accommodations for the expected crowds.

If the Missouri exposures continue, the public is likely to gain considerable valuable light on political methods there and presumably elsewhere. Senator Farris has just been indicted in Dent County for a little affair which he planned and carried out in connection with one Callahan, a Democratic editor. Farris was bent on retaining his seat in the Senate, but felt unable to secure the Dent County delegates. Accordingly, he gave Callahan $1,000, with instructions to become a candidate himself and secure the delegates. This the editor did, and promptly delivered the votes in convention to Farris. This was the main line of activity on Farris's part, but there were sundry side lines which have also been productive of scandals and indictments. He had a candidate for Congress whom he suddenly abandoned to support a man more popular with the "better element." Subsequently the abandoned candidate showed signs of satisfaction and contentment. There were also some instances of plain, old-fashioned bribery, for which suitable rewards, such as employment in various capacities at the Capital, were provided by Farris. He began public life in the humble capacity of justice of the peace, but, with methods like these, he naturally rose rapidly, until he became distinguished as the leader of the "alum" ring in the Legislature.

Just now the members of the Missouri Legislature are under fire in connection with the Baking Powder law, but some attention ought also to be given to the recent disclosures as illustrating the methods of a corporation bent on securing a monopoly. The profits of the baking powder combination in Missouri are said to have been $3,500,000 a year since 1899, when the Anti-Alum bill was passed. The passage of this law was most adroitly managed. The bill was introduced as a pure-food measure. It contained a long list of deadly drugs, arsenic, opium, etc., whose use in food products was prohibited. Inconspicuously tucked away somewhere near the end was the word alum. The Trust sent its most efficient promoter to the Capitol. He purchased such help as he needed. Members in the secret voted for the bill because they were paid to do so; many others voted for it because they were deceived as to its real meaning. When an attempt was made in 1901 to repeal the law, the Trust suddenly organized the "Health Society of Missouri," with headquarters in the law offices of W. J. Stone, the Trust's attorney. This society issued large quantities of printed matter, presenting arguments against the use of alum in baking powder. The Society was a sham, but the repeal bill was smothered, as was a similar attempt last year. Part of the monopoly has been broken by a court decision, but the combination still holds the sole right to manufacture baking powder in the State.

It begins to look, with the deepening and widening, every day, of the postal scandals, as if the President's duty were to return at once to Washington and take personal charge of a relentless campaign against corruptionists. At the very moment when, in St. Louis, he was declaring that "we must show our abhorrence of corruption, in public and private life alike," fresh revelations of rottenness in the postal service were sending out their foul odors. What is now charged, with only too much detail and corroborative evidence, is that the city post-office in Washington has been used as a kind of catch-all for the hangers-on of politicians, carried on the payroll without service performed or warrant of law; that an investigation into this crookedness was undertaken by the Comptroller three years ago, but was called off by the higher postal authorities, including the precious Perry Heath, and even Postmaster-General Smith himself. The charge of a hushed-up inquiry is practically admitted by Comptroller Tracewell to be well-founded. Now here is not simply a public scandal, but a party danger. Unless this fraud upon the public service is thoroughly laid open and disinfected, it will bring great damage to the Republicans and their President. Therefore, we say that it is for the latter to do what his Postmaster-General is evidently incapable of doing—that is, draw his official sword and make the heads begin to fall. He has spoken brave words about fearless honesty in public life; now let him, in his own phrase, make them good by fearless deeds.

The new Mayor of Philadelphia, Mr. Weaver, is taking up the details of administration there in a spirit which, if maintained against the influence of the Durham ring, may well mean better things for that afflicted city. The conviction of school officials who accepted money from teachers in return for promotions and favors, was brought about largely through his efforts while District Attorney. He has announced that he will continue his pursuit of corruption in all its forms, and is already taking steps to break up the well-known alliance between vice and the police. On the side of administrative reform, he is equally vigorous. Philadelphia has need of a considerable amount of money for necessary public improvements, and she also has a debt-limit which has been reached. The problem of providing $37,000,000 for a filtration system, the completion of the Boulevard, etc., is a difficult one. Its solution, however, is likely to be found, as in this city, in the full valuation of real estate for purposes of tax assessment, and the consequent increase of the city's borrowing capacity. The valuations in Philadelphia are now about 80 per cent. of the market price.

The Wisconsin Legislature is about to adjourn without enacting the primary reform so dear to the heart of Gov. La Follette. He has the lower house under his control, but not the Senate, and one proposal after another has been declined with thanks by the "Stalwarts," who are in the majority in that body. This result throws a curious light upon the position assumed by the Governor prior

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to the election last year, when he felt himself strong enough to throw down the gauntlet to Senator Spooner, even going so far as to induce the State Convention to qualify its endorsement of the Senator for reëlection. In fact, the notion which prevailed pretty generally in Wisconsin a year ago, that La Follette could do about as he liked in legislation as well as in administration, has received several severe shocks during the present session. A bill changing the tax system as applying to railroads is expected to pass, but this is the only important measure sought by the Governor which has not met with complete neglect or defeat.

One more effort to secure undue special privileges for organized labor has fallen to the ground, this time in Illinois. In 1899 the Illinois Legislature passed a free employment agency act, establishing employment bureaus under the care of the State. The purpose of this act was benevolent and praiseworthy. It was intended to aid all persons who needed work, and also all employers. But the labor agitators got the ear of the legislators, and the act was amended so as to provide that no employer whose workmen were on strike, or who was engaged in a "lockout," should be furnished with workers by the State agencies, or be permitted to inspect the lists of unemployed persons. The Supreme Court of the State has now decided that this amendment involves a discrimination in favor of a class, and the law is consequently declared to be unconstitutional, with the result that labor has lost a legitimate benefit in an attempt to gain an end which was unwarranted and illegal.

The section of the penal code relating to hours of labor, declared invalid by the New York Court of Appeals, on April 29, was enacted in 1897, and attempted to render guilty of a misdemeanor any "person or corporation who, contracting with the State or a municipal corporation, shall require more than eight hours' work for a day's labor." Although it has taken six years formally to overthrow this enactment, it had already failed to perform the service which its advocates hoped for, and their dissatisfaction with it found expression in the amendments to the labor law adopted in 1899. These provided that in each contract to which the State or a municipal corporation was a party, a clause must be included providing for eight hours of labor only, to be paid for at the "prevailing rate" of wages; these terms to apply whether the work was done directly by the contractor or by sub-contractors. The Court of Appeals two years ago placed the ban of its disapproval on this law. Efforts for nearly a decade to fix the eight-hour rule in contracts with the State or any of its municipalities have accordingly come to naught. The attempt has not been abandoned, however. The Legislature in 1902 adopted a joint resolution proposing an amendment of the Constitution, giving the Legislature power to "regulate and fix the wages or salaries, the hours of work or labor, and make provision for the protection, welfare, and safety of persons employed by the State, or any county, city, town, village, or other civil division of the State, or by any contractor or sub-contractor performing work, labor, or services for the State or any county, city, town," etc. This joint resolution was readopted by the Legislature which has just adjourned, and is to be submitted to the people in 1905. It is fortunate that ample time will be given for general consideration of the dangerous powers thus sought to be granted.

The speakers of the Central Federated Union grow vehement over the guarantees of the Federal Constitution, but they are a trifle loose as to the solemn engagements of their own organization. The Union entered into an agreement with the Rapid Transit contractors, two years ago, in which it was stipulated that all disputes should be settled by arbitration. It is the merest quibble for the labor men now to say that this stipulation has no bearing upon the strike declared by the Rockmen and Excavators' Union, on the ground that this organization joined the central body after the agreement was made. In endorsing the strike of the Rockmen without reference to arbitration, the Central Federated Union has violated the spirit and probably the letter of its bond. This has a direct bearing upon the issue which has been raised. It may or may not be that the Rockmen have just reasons for complaint. What is absolutely certain is that, in the light of the Central Union's broken pledge, there is no chance at all that their demands, just or unjust, will receive attention on their merits. By its bad faith, the Union has raised a presumption against the strikers. If they are wisely led, they will go back to work, and seek redress, if they merit it, in the only honest way open to them as members of the Central Federated Union.

The testimony of Mr. Baer, the President of all the Reading companies, before the Interstate Commerce Commission, closed on Thursday. It gave the impression of a man of great intelligence having many difficulties to contend against, and chiefly concerned to bring a fair return to the shareholders of his company for the capital they have invested in the business of mining and transporting coal. When he says that he has never been a party to any scheme of overcapitalization in his life, it may be believed that he speaks the truth. Whatever has been done in this way with the Reading properties in the past was done before his time, and it would be difficult now to say how much of it was due to design and how much to necessity—the necessity of looking forward and anticipating the future wants of the joint Reading interests as producers and carriers of an indispensable but exhaustible article of commerce. If too much money has been paid for coal lands in the past, we must ask, before passing judgment on the buyers, what would be the condition of the property if the lands had not been bought; and so on. Human judgment is not infallible, and in such cases the appropriate punishment falls upon those who make the mistakes.

"The appeal now lies to the ballot-box." So affirms gravely the chief newspaper mourner over the Northern Securities decision. It will be extremely interesting to observe the process. First it would be necessary to catch a political party willing to attack the anti-Trust law in its platform and on the stump. Then it would be necessary to find a great body of voters who believe themselves aggrieved by the decision against the Northern Securities Company. There is no use in "appealing" to the ballot-box unless you have some prospect of getting a majority of the ballots. Every indication to-day, however, is that one small ballot-box, opened, say, at the corner of Broadway and Wall Street, would suffice to hold all the votes that might be cast in favor of abolishing the anti-Trust act. The same newspapers that are going to induce the people to vote down a highly popular law, are also, we observe, about to bring about, in a similar way, the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment. Thus they would "appeal to the ballot-box" in order to shut off that appeal in the case of a million or more legal voters.

"When we present petitions to Congress and pray for relief, we are told to go to the courts, because legal questions are involved. When we go to the courts, we are told to go to Congress for relief, because it is a political question. When Congress grants any of the relief prayed for and the Southern white folks take it to the courts, the courts decide that the act of Congress is unconstitutional."

This is the striking way in which the colored editor of the Richmond (Va.) *Planet* sums up the political condition of the negro, in commenting upon the decision of the Supreme Court in the Alabama case. But he continues: "We negroes have taken the other path now, and expect to emerge on the table-land of financial success and industrial prosperity." This is precisely the wise counsel given by Booker Washington. At the same time, the political cause is not yet lost. Last week's decision, shuffling as it was,

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is not the only one which the Supreme Court must give. At least four other suits are pending, and the highest tribunal must be agile indeed if it avoids the real issue in every one. Moreover, there are multiplying signs that Congress will take some action when it reassembles next December. If the Supreme Court insists that violations of the Fifteenth Amendment do not concern it, a Republican Congress cannot turn a deaf ear to the negroes of the South without doing violence to its best and noblest traditions. There is proof in plenty of the injustice of the disfranchising laws, and of the still graver injustice which everywhere marks their enforcement.

A trustworthy Havana correspondent of the *Evening Post* throws an interesting light upon some of Gen. Wood's operations in Cuba. It now appears, for instance, that the remarkable article which was printed in the *North American Review* for January, 1900, over the signature of Lieut. James E. Runcie, United States Army, retired, was deliberately instigated by Gen. Wood, and that the manuscript bore corrections in the handwriting of that officer. The worst part of this offence lies in the fact that the article attacked Gen. Brooke, Gen. Wood's superior, in the most unmeasured terms, and denounced him roundly for his failure properly to govern the island of Cuba. When the article appeared, Gen. Brooke had already been removed, and been succeeded at Havana by Gen. Wood. But the article was so plainly a violation of military decency and discipline that Secretary Root ordered Gen. Wood by cable to call Lieut. Runcie, who had accompanied Gen. Wood from Santiago to Havana, to account for it. This was done, with the result that Lieut. Runcie was removed from several commissions and offices in which, according to Gen. Wood, he was doing most valuable work for the military government. Now it appears that Gen. Wood was as guilty as Lieut. Runcie. This matter is properly one to come before the Senate Military Committee if President Roosevelt insists upon advancing Gen. Wood to the rank of major-general during the coming summer.

It is not necessary to hold the sacramental view of marriage in order to sympathize with those English prelates and clergymen who are so scandalized by the Vanderbilt wedding in church. Let the canonical position be what it may, even those who regard marriage as a civil contract may well be disgusted by the tendency to make hugger-mugger of the family relation, and to give divorce the air of being simply an easy means, for the rich, of changing partners in marriage as you would at a ball. This is the shocking thing. It affronts, not merely sacerdotalism, but ordinary decency. There is no surer sign of the insidious invasion of luxury, ever seeking a new sensation for its jaded nerves, than the growing laxity about marriage. Let any man of middle life recall the social penalty visited upon divorced persons a generation ago, and compare it with the cynical indifference which prevails, as regards even the most flagrant cases of off with the old wife (or husband) and on with the new, in those circles where wealth is the sufficient passport. The difference is as notable as it is painful.

The Cobden Club is not favorably impressed by the publications and other movements of those who are alarmed lest the food supply of Great Britain be endangered in time of war. It has issued a leaflet prepared by Mr. Harold Cox, its Secretary, in which the arguments of the "scaremongers" are reviewed. In the first place he shows that all of these arguments are based upon the theory that an interruption in the supply of wheat from foreign countries would mean famine to a large part of the population, whereas it would at most mean only a change of diet, as, from wheat to oats, potatoes, meats, and other kinds of food. The shortage would of course be felt as a deprivation, but it would not mean famine. The price of all kinds of food would rise, but such a rise in price would not be England's first experience. During the Crimean war the price of wheat rose from 53s. 3d. to 74s. 8d. Again, in 1872, the price of bread rose from natural causes from 5½d. for the quartern loaf to 10½d., yet the period was not marked by any exceptional distress. It is said that, in case of war, the food supply from foreign countries would be cut off by the enemy's cruisers. Mr. Cox points out that food is not contraband of war except to cities actually besieged, and that neutral ships could not be molested by the enemy without embroiling himself with neutral nations. The higher the price of wheat, the more eager would the producers and holders of that cereal be to send it to the British market. America, for example, would not tamely submit to having grain-laden vessels stopped on the ocean and prevented from carrying on a commerce which is recognized as lawful. It has been proposed by some persons that the Government should organize a system of buying and storing a large supply of wheat for emergencies of war. This Mr. Cox shows to be quite unnecessary, for the reason that wars do not come suddenly, and that merchants would accumulate all needful stocks on the first signs of war. They would do this for purposes of profit, but they would also take the risk of loss. This would be the natural course, and much better than Governmental interference.

The news of the week relating to the Mantchurian question converges to the one point that Secretary Hay's protest against the Russian programme was the chief reason why it was disavowed. Japan has telegraphed her thanks, and Ambassador Cassini has conveyed not exactly thanks, but the good will of his Government and himself, in large measure. Still later information implies that the so-called demands made upon China by Russia were merely inquiries. What would China do or say if Russia should do this or that? Thirst for information is a very different thing from a demand that Chinese ports shall remain closed, or that no more foreign consuls be allowed in Mantchuria. This explanation, it is said, involves no retreat from any position officially taken by Russia. Of course not. The only positions taken by Russia are those taken at St. Petersburg. Requests for information may be as plenty as blackberries at Peking, but they do not commit the Czar's Government to any policy whatever. All this is agreeable news at Washington, but it will be still more satisfactory when Russia carries out her agreement for the evacuation of Mantchuria. Meanwhile, news coming directly from Peking says that the Russian Chargé d'Affaires has issued a denial similar to that of St. Petersburg. He states that his communication was misconstrued, and that the only conditions formulated by him as precedent to the evacuation of Mantchuria are those necessary for the protection of Russian interests. This is so extremely vague that it may include anything, from complete evacuation to complete and permanent occupation. It leaves the same conviction in the minds of observers that all other events in that quarter have produced—that Russia will retain as much of Mantchuria now as she can hold without being obliged to fight for it, and that some time she will get the whole.

It seems that Premier Combes has found it necessary to draw the line somewhere in his movement against the religious orders in France. At all events, he has drawn such a line at Lourdes. Whether the considerations which caused him to make an exception here are financial or religious, is not made clear. The pilgrimages to Lourdes brought a great deal of money to that locality. The miracles that the pilgrims took back may have been of doubtful efficacy, but the gold that they left there and distributed *en route* was as good as any that ever came from the mint. To abolish both miracles and mint drops at one time is more than human nature should be asked to endure. It was wise on the part of the Premier to refer the matter to the courts, or, at all events, to wait until the question, already before the courts, is finally decided.

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STRIKE-COMMISSION LOGIC.

When the abstract of the Anthracite Strike Commission's report was published, we felt and expressed the sense of a lack of connection between the Commission's findings of fact and its awards. It seemed not to have a clear case for the increase of wages which it adjudged the miners. Yet it was, of course, possible that the abstract did injustice to the reasoning of the full report, and so we suspended judgment, awaiting the appearance of the latter. We have it at last, Bulletin No. 46 of the Department of Labor, and are surprised to find that the hiatus between premises and conclusion is even more glaring than we had supposed. The Commissioners discredit and reject almost the entire case which the miners attempted to make out for an increase of wages, but award them the increase nevertheless.

This will seem a strong assertion, but it may easily be justified. The shortest and most convincing way to do it is to set forth in parallel columns the arguments of the miners' counsel and the remarks of the Commission upon them, in the light of the evidence adduced. Such an exhibit follows:

THE CLAIMS.	THE FINDINGS.
"(1.) The present rate of wages is much lower than the rate of wages paid in the bituminous coal fields for substantially similar work."	"As to the general contention that the rates of compensation for contract miners in the anthracite region are lower than those paid in the bituminous fields for work substantially similar, or lower than are paid in other occupations requiring equal skill and training, the Commission finds that there has been a failure to produce testimony to sustain either of these propositions."
"(2.) The present rate of wages is lower than is paid in other occupations requiring equal skill and training."	"We do not find that testimony has been adduced which would permit satisfactory comparison with earnings in the bituminous coal fields."
"(3.) The average annual earnings in the anthracite coal fields are much less than the average annual earnings in the bituminous coal fields for substantially similar work."	"We find that the average daily rate of earnings, as nearly as can be ascertained, does not compare unfavorably with that in other occupations requiring substantially equal skill and training."
"(4.) The average annual earnings in the anthracite coal fields are much less than the average annual earnings for occupations requiring equal skill and training."	"The statistics so far available do not show a greater hazard than obtains in some other occupations, notably in the fisheries and in those of switchmen and freight-train crews on our railroads."
"(5.) The rate of wages in the anthracite coal fields is insufficient in view of the dangerous character of the occupation."	"The Commission finds that the conditions of the life of the mine workers outside the mines do not justify, to their full extent, the adverse criticisms made by their representatives."
"(6.) The annual earnings of the mine workers are insufficient to maintain the American standard of living."	"The contention that the increased cost of living has made it impossible to maintain a fair standard of life upon the basis of present wages."
"(7.) The increased cost of living has made it impossible to maintain a fair standard of life upon the basis of present wages."	"(8.) The wages of the anthracite workers are so low that their children are forced prematurely into the breakers and mills."
"(8.) The wages of the anthracite workers are so low that their children are forced prematurely into the breakers and mills."	"(9.) Wages are below the fair and just earnings of mine workers."
"(9.) Wages are below the fair and just earnings of mine workers."	"The Commission does not think that the testimony warrants it in finding as a fact the allegations so made."
	"It is impossible to be accurate in this matter."

There is the whole case. Those nine arguments were the only ones put forward by the counsel for the miners or considered by the Commission. And what we ask is, Who, on reading the findings, as set over against the claims, could doubt that the miners would be turned out of court without a leg to stand on? Who, hearing a judge thus sum up so heavily against a claimant, could doubt that it was preliminary to dismissing the case summarily? Yet, in fact, "The Commission, therefore [note that astonishing *therefore*], considers, and so adjudges and awards: That an increase of 10 per cent. over and above the rate paid in the month of April, 1902, be paid to all contract miners for cutting coal, yardage and other work."

Nor does a reading in detail of the Commission's report, in the part that relates to wages, diminish our wonder at the way in which it "made the praise and glory of God come out in the conclusion, no matter what the premises." Its investigation of the rise in the cost of living was particularly searching. The miners contended that this rise, in the anthracite regions, had been 30 per cent. between 1900 and 1902. But careful inquiry and collation of facts by the Department of Labor showed that the real increase was only 9.8 per cent. That is to say, the 10 per cent. increase in wages which the men received in 1900 had not been eaten up, as they alleged, by a 30 per cent. increase in the cost of living. Similarly in regard to the irregularity of work. The Commission found that, in the past, the idleness of the contract miners was often their own fault, and that "it may be reasonably expected that the future demand for anthracite coal will keep the industry at its present point of activity"—that is, where it furnishes full employment for a large part of the year.

President Roosevelt in Omaha held up the report of the Strike Commission as a model. He certainly could not have meant a model of logic. When it came to announce its verdict, it quietly turned its back on the evidence and its own analysis of it. The real "therefore" of its conclusion was unexpressed. It did not relate to the argument or the testimony which the Commission heard—that its own report betrays—but to the general expectation, or to a desire to make the arbitration a success, or possibly to political motives, half consciously influential. At any rate, the Commission has given out a document which is as interesting psychologically as it is industrially. It shows how the human mind will work. And as for the Commission's severe and solemn arraignment of trades unions for violence and murder, what attitude towards that can it expect the men to take, after the gross partiality of its award in their favor, but that of the Irish vixen in Miss Edgeworth's play? "Give me leave," said the magistrate, "to advise you a little for your good." "Plase, your Honor," cried Catty Rooney, "it's no use—from a child up I never could stand to be advised for my good!"

EXPANSION AND EXPANSION.

President Roosevelt's address at St. Louis on Thursday had a vigorous swing and was marked by a rough-and-ready philosophy. He was on his own ground, both personally and as an historian, in describing the winning of the West; and his strong and iterative phrases savor of the caravan and the camp and the forest settlement. His main argument, moreover, is perfectly sound. The men who came to this country with empire in their brains had to have room to grow, and their push westward was like that of an irresistible tide. That they did not break off, governmentally, from their parent States, was more the work of the inventor than the statesman. But for steamboat and railway and telegraph, Oregon and California would never have consented to be governed from Washington. Mr. Roosevelt did not dwell upon this, but he was eminently correct in picturing American expansion as that of a great democracy over contiguous territory, where free institutions and self-government went west with the sun.

Neither President Roosevelt nor ex-President Cleveland, in speaking of the expansion of 1803, referred specifically to the expansion of 1899; but it was obviously lurking in the back of both their heads. "We have never," said Mr. Roosevelt, "tried to force on any section of our new territory an unsuitable form of government." He was plainly making a tacit apology for our course in the Philippines. "We memorialize," declared Mr. Cleveland, "a peaceful acquisition of territory for truly American uses and purposes." The reference is clear to an acquisition by force for un-American ends. Again the Philippines! The subject will not down. Americans cannot meet anywhere to celebrate the triumphs of free government, without an awkward pause, a look askance, as the conquered Filipino thrusts forward his manacled hands, asking, "What are you going to do with me?"

President Roosevelt did well to cite the example of expanding Rome as one for us to avoid. He did not, however, say just what were the evils of Roman

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expansion, or how nearly we are paralleling them in the Philippines. They were, of course, mainly the ruthless exploitation of distant lands and peoples. The provinces were the prey of rapacious prætors—the politicians with a "pull," of their day. Everything was to be wrung from them, nothing given. As Tacitus said, the Roman colonies came to mean not a collection of human beings, but a mere symbol: so many colonies, so much plunder. In like manner, the Philippines have now become to our ruling class—the men who create and fill offices and grant franchises—simply a new country to be overrun and exploited. At the very moment when President Roosevelt was lauding self-government, the telegraph was bringing word of another embezzler in the Philippines. "O. G. Milne, postmaster of Tacloban, Leyte, has been convicted of misappropriating funds." What is an American doing there? If his name were Quintus Paulus, or even José Sanchez, we could understand that it was simply a case of colonial robbery, but O. G. Milne! "These French names," said Thierry, apropos of the Canadian rebellion of 1837, "cut me to the heart." So we say of these American names of Philippine oppressors.

Neither the passage of time, nor the apparent indifference and acquiescence of the people, can really change this question. Principles remain and facts are what they are. We are only proving the truth of what the author of 'Representative Government' long ago told us—namely, that "such a thing as a government of one people by another does not and cannot exist." Mill added—and this day is his prophecy fulfilled in our ears—"One people may keep another as a warren or preserve for its own use, a place to make money in, a human cattle farm, to be worked for the profits of its own inhabitants; but, if the good of the governed is the proper business of a government, it is utterly impossible that a people should directly attend to it." The work has to be done by delegates; and the history of the world shows that irresponsible and arbitrary delegates, in remote lands, degenerate, as we have seen too many of our representatives in the Philippines, into cruel and extortionate masters of the enslaved. Froude was not a man to cherish humanitarian scruples or democratic prejudices, yet he wrote that, "if there be one lesson which history clearly teaches, it is this, that free nations cannot govern subject provinces."

By whatever door we go in, here is where we always come out. The acquisition of the Philippines was a violent break with all our best American traditions. It was wholly out of line with our historic expansion. None of the arguments which justify the latter can throw a mantle of decency about the former. It was a bloody conquest of an inoffensive people; and in order to align that with the expansion of the United States, you must first burn the Declaration of Independence and wrap your cartridges in the Sermon on the Mount.

FORGETFULNESS OF REPUBLICS.

The well-known publicist, Gabriel Hanotaux, gives the following explanation of his purpose in writing a comprehensive history of 'Contemporary France': "Every day," he says, "democracy is required to settle the most arduous problems, and fails to remember that they have been raised a hundred times already, and that the answer has already been given by itself only yesterday." For his own country, he proposes to afford "a sufficient quantity of definite information, of documents which have been checked, of precedents which have been verified"; and he sets before himself the serious task of making the French democracy "pause one moment for reflection and consider its own acts and deeds, which, in proportion as they are left behind, become history." It is a novel and an ambitious enterprise, this of forcing a republic to take account of its own precedents and tendencies. It is also a useful task, for republics are as certainly forgetful as they proverbially are ungrateful.

This forgetfulness, which too often prevents republics from profiting by their own past experience, is probably closely bound up with the party system. Monarchies offer, at least theoretically, a personification of the nation, independent of and above party. Traditions and precedents gather about a royal house as they cannot about a government which is identified with a party. How shall there be any settled continuity where the avowed policy of each new administration may be to undo the work of the last? But this neglect of the lessons of history, if a natural defect in republics, is by no means inevitable or irremediable. It prevails in an alarming degree only when the leaders of public opinion fail signally in their duty of reading the present in the light of the approved teachings of the past.

What a difference it would make in our most vexatious political and social questions, if, instead of treating them as new problems, we could realize that they are all old, and most of them partially solved. Our Southern fellow-citizens, and many Northerners, are to-day treating the matter of the negro's rights as if it were an open question, as if the anti-slavery movement, the civil war, the consequent amendments to the Constitution had settled nothing. A very little consultation of history within the experience of living men would show so clearly whither tends every unfair effort to keep down the colored man, that the most violent advocate of "white man's government" would shudder at the future he is preparing for his children. The civil war settled more than slavery; it put the nation squarely on record for political equality, irrespective of race. The principle may be temporarily evaded by chicanery, it may be confused with the unwarrantable assumption that the political equality of the negro carries with it *pari passu* his social equality; but so doing, a movement is bruising itself against the hard wall of an adjudicated fact. Where slavery proved impossible, no theory of a liberal serfage can be permanently worked. A very little reference to the history of the white man's dealings with the negro would show that the real question which confronts the South is not how to dispose of the negro for the next few years, but how to avoid the calamitous results that must follow any settlement of that difficult problem which will not for all time be just.

Ordinary sagacity will consider the results of tried policies when a familiar case recurs. If as much hindsight could be enforced upon politicians as prevails among physicians or bank officials, our outlook would be happier than it is. But broader historical retrospect will lead to toleration, and should readily be convertible into practical wisdom. President G. Stanley Hall, addressing the Massachusetts Historical Society in January last on "The Relations between Higher and Lower Races," said:

> "Our democracy needs a type of historical study that glimpses these larger questions, and, while hopeful, does not assume that we are the *beati possidentes*, or our age the culminating period of history, but rather that its brighest pages are yet to be written because the best and greatest things have not happened yet. Nor does this necessarily imply that even our own blood or our own institutions will dominate the far future. In many lands the victims have been the real conquerors. In later ages other stocks, now obscure, and perhaps other tongues now unstudied, will occupy the centre of the historic stage, appropriating the best we achieve, as we learn from the Semites, Greeks, and Romans. If this be true, every vigorous race, however crude and undeveloped, is, like childhood, worthy of the maximum of reverence and care and study, and may become the chosen organ of a new dispensation of culture and civilization. Some of the now obscure may be the heirs of all we possess, and wield the ever-increasing resources of the world for good or evil, somewhat perhaps according as we now influence their early plastic stages."

In the turmoil of life in a new republic, few attain to so philosophical an outlook. All the more urgent their duty to enforce the easier truth that genuine progress comes only when past experience guides present policy. The republic which treats all things as if they were new, is like an insurance company that should systematically disregard its actuarial tables.

THE SPECIAL FRANCHISE TAX.

In the year 1899 the State Legislature passed a law classifying as real estate, for purposes of taxation, every franchise or right to use a public street or highway for purposes of gain. These

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were termed *special* franchises to distinguish them from the general franchise or right to be a corporation. The right to occupy a street or highway for a special purpose, such as a railway, on, or over, or under, the surface of the ground, or for a pipe line to convey gas, steam, oil, or electricity, is something over and above the right to be a corporation, and is frequently the main thing, the *sine qua non*, that gives value to the corporation. The Legislature in 1899 for the first time sought to make this kind of value contribute to the public expenses at the same rate as other tangible and immovable property. It accordingly passed a law which made these special franchises taxable in the same way as the adjoining houses and lots; the value of each franchise to be assessed by public officers.

The litigation which followed the passage of this act reached its final stage on Tuesday week, so far as the State courts are concerned, in a unanimous decision of the Court of Appeals affirming the Constitutionality of the act at all points. It is said that the corporations affected by it will now take an appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States. If the latter tribunal should be convinced that it has jurisdiction of the case, it may go so far as to review the finding of the highest tribunal of the State, but it is hardly possible that it should reverse that finding. It is a rule of the Supreme Court, we believe, that, in the interpretation of a State law, it will follow the latest settled decision of the courts of that State. The unanimous decision of the New York Court of Appeals must be considered a settled decision of the State, so far as anything can be considered settled in this world. Hence there is small ground for expecting that the decision just rendered at Albany will be reversed.

That the corporations expected that the validity of the tax would be upheld was made manifest by the very slight disturbance of values on the Stock Exchange. The steadiness of the market proves also that no substantial injustice has been done by the tax. If, after all the water that has been poured into Metropolitan Traction and Manhattan Elevated, the shares are still bought and sold far above their par value, sympathy is obviously wasted upon them. The owners of these shares have not made as much money as they expected to make. They have not been able to control the law-making power to the extent that they hoped to do. They will have to pay taxes hereafter as do private owners of real estate. This will be a great gain to the city treasury, and it is not unlikely that other American cities and States will avail themselves of this new source of revenue. We observe that Gov. Odell, *en route* to St. Louis, said at Indianapolis that he was not surprised at the decision. As he recommended, in his last annual message, that the franchise tax be repealed and a tax on gross receipts be substituted in place of it, we cannot assume that he was gratified by it.

The reason why the tax provided for in the Ford law (the special franchise tax) is preferable to a tax on gross receipts is that it is more just, and will yield a far greater sum to the public revenue than the other. It is more just because it puts the private owner of real estate and the corporate owner on a footing of equality. It will yield a greater revenue because the percentage of gross receipts collected would probably correspond to the percentage levied on other property, say, 2½ per cent. If a company's gross earnings are $100,000 per year, the tax (on the gross earnings plan) would be $2,500. But the total value of the property, in such a case, would probably be as much as $500,000, and a tax on this capital would be $12,500. The private owner of real estate is taxed not on the gross receipts from the rents of his property, but on its gross value, and this he must pay even if it yields no rental. This distinction between gross rental and gross value is not generally understood, but to those who look below the surface it is plain that Gov. Odell's argument for a tax on gross receipts instead of the franchise tax is altogether fallacious.

The decision of the Court of Appeals in this case harmonizes in a broad way with that of the Circuit Court of the United States in the Northern Securities case. It is another sign that public opinion demands the putting of a curb on corporations, not in an indiscriminate mad rush, but in a safe and orderly manner, so that the rights of individual men shall not be submerged under vast combinations, or the social movement clogged by the concentration of wealth in a comparatively few hands when it is accomplished in contravention of the principles of the common law. It has been, indeed, the apparent inability of the country to pause anywhere in the career of merged mergers, upon which it seemed to have madly entered, that has most impressed foreign financial observers, and most alarmed thoughtful Americans. On every hand we heard of absorption and over-capitalization, but where were the *vestigia retrorsum?* Well, the United States Circuit Court showed how one combination might be broken up. The New York Court of Appeals has given the people another hook to put in the nose of Leviathan, if they wish. It has been found, that is to say, that the creatures of law are not above the law. The sovereign power which charters can control. The law-making body which grants privileges, can tax the wealth which results from them. It is simply the discovery of those truths, now supported by the highest judicial authority, which has carried so much dismay into certain financial and political circles.

What they fail to see is that the only alternative to a measured and orderly control of corporate power is either revolution or Socialism. Socialists are not the only ones to have discovered the powerful impetus given to their cause by those who have laid railroad to railroad and industry to industry. The final jumping-off place of such aggregations of capital is, too obviously, national ownership. They would either break down in private hands, or else break the nation down. To take them over by the State would not necessarily mean confiscation. Expropriation would do the work, as we see it attempted to-day in Ireland. The private owners would get a price, though not for their water, and then they would be taxed smartly, by graduated income taxes and otherwise, to help pay the bill. That is plainly the Socialistic programme; and that towards its accomplishment the corporate tendencies of the day make inevitably, we do not see how any man who keeps his eyes open can deny. For our part, it is just because we believe with all our hearts in individualism and competition—in other words, in liberty—that we can but hail every proof that the people have not surrendered the power to deal as they will with the corporations of their own creating. If they could not, we should advance with accelerated pace towards that State Socialism which, to our mind, spells tyranny.

There are, of course, some things which laws and courts cannot do. They cannot make men's talents equal. They cannot prevent the higher capacity from winning the higher reward. They cannot permanently check the inventor or the initiator or the captain of industry. In short, they cannot remodel human nature or do away with economic law. But the law can compel its own creatures to be law-abiding. As an instrument in the hands of the people, it can make artificial beings like corporations subserve the general good. If the Northern Securities decision, and the opinion of the Court of Appeals as to the franchise tax, are (as they have been called) "backward steps" only in that sense, then we consider them among the most wholesome and hopeful ever taken.

THE KAISER AT ROME.

Even Bismarck, after his proud "We will not go to Canossa," lived to need and seek the political aid of German Catholics. It is not strange, therefore, to find the Emperor William, in the pursuit of the great policies which he has at heart, going all the way to Rome. His visit to the Vatican—for it is obvious that his real destination was there, and not the Quirinal—was made as imposing as outward pomp could render it, and falls, unquestionably, at a most significant crisis. We do not refer to

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any domestic difficulties of Germany, as touching Catholic questions. Embarrassments exist in connection with the return of the Jesuits, which Von Bülow promised to permit in return for necessary Clerical votes in the Reichstag, and there are certain aspects of the school and university questions which are making trouble; but these are only minor and incidental matters.

What the Kaiser is really thought to be concerning himself about is a much larger question. It relates to his vast colonial schemes, and has to do especially with the prestige of Germany in the Orient. In a word, he is apparently bent on supplanting France as the titular protector of the Catholic Church in the East. Just at present, the relations between the Vatican and the French Government are exceedingly strained. The harsh enforcement of the rigid law against the religious orders in France has led not merely to many incidental hardships, but to a great deal of bad feeling and indignation. The advisers of the Pope might well urge him to break with a republic that had shown itself so ungrateful for Leo XIII.'s aid in consolidating its power at home, and at least to refuse it the honor of posing longer as the official defender of the Catholic faith in the Orient. At this juncture, the Kaiser comes forward to offer the services of Germany, at a time when, as he said in one of his speeches in Palestine, five years ago, "the German Empire and the German name have now acquired throughout the empire of the Osmanli a higher reputation than ever before."

France has had distinct warning that she could not go on flouting the Holy See at home while representing it abroad. When the Law of Associations, aimed at the Catholic orders, was still pending, the Pope wrote a letter to the Cardinal-Archbishop of Paris, in which he made a very significant reference to the protectorate which France exercised over Catholic missions in the East. French Catholic missionaries, observed his Holiness, had done an incalculable work in extending, with the Gospel, "the name, the language, and the prestige of France" throughout the ends of the earth. The Pope was arguing, of course, that a country bound by such ties to the Church ought not to appear as its persecutor. And the fair inference was that if, in spite of the warning, a doctrinaire anti-Clerical Government went rashly on in the work of expelling Catholic monks and sisters from France, the Vatican would be compelled to seek another protector in the Oriental world.

How important, in a governmental and commercial way, the official connection with the Holy See has been to France, it would be easy to prove from the writings and speeches of French economists and statesmen. M. René Pinon, writing recently in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of the stake of France in the extreme Orient, said that "it is a mere commonplace to affirm that a long and historical coöperation has rendered the interests of France and those of the Catholic Church inseparable." Scarcely a debate takes place in the Chamber on the policy of the Government, as respects colonizing and trade in Syria or China, which does not bring from the Foreign Minister an acknowledgement of indebtedness to Catholic missionaries. M. Delcassé spoke in that sense, not long ago, when French influence in the Turkish Empire was under discussion. It is thus a serious blow to France which the Vatican would be able to deal in giving another the rôle of protector of the Catholic Church and Defender of the Catholic Faith.

What qualifications has Protestant Germany to take up the work, in case it is removed from the hands of nominally Catholic France? Going beyond the first incongruity of the idea, we see how the thing would fit in with German plans and aspirations. In Syria and throughout all Mesopotamia, German railway enterprises are taking on a great importance. In China, the Germans are exploring and exploiting their holdings in a fashion which shows that they mean to stay, and to claim new consideration in all Eastern questions. With a restless and versatile Emperor, a growing naval power, and a nation bent on great schemes of trade and colonization across the sea, it is evident that Germany could both get and give aid in such an alliance with the Papacy as that which France has long enjoyed, but seems now to be on the point of losing. It is not impossible, therefore, that, on his next journey to the Turkish Empire, the Kaiser may announce himself not only as the friend of the Sultan and the defender of the Protestant faith in Palestine—such he proclaimed himself in 1898—but the chosen representative of the Holy See as well.

THE "MUNICIPALIZATION OF BREAD" IN ITALY.

NAPLES, March 23, 1903.

All Italy is discussing an experiment in what is called by the awkward title of the "municipalization of bread"—that is, the assumption on the part of local authorities of the business of baking and distributing to its inhabitants all the bread consumed within its limits. The Italian Government's monopoly of certain lines of enterprise, of which the cultivation and manufacture of tobacco is the most conspicuous example, has made the logical transition to governmental control of other industries intelligible to even the most ignorant and thoughtless. In several of the small towns, from time to time, the local authorities have taken upon themselves, for longer or shorter periods, the functions of a public bakery. This has usually been (as in the little town of Positano, on the northern shore of the bay of Salerno, three or four years ago) as a temporary expedient during strikes. At that time, the bread manufactured by the town was of a better quality and cost less than what the bakers had provided. On the settlement of the strike the *municipio* ceased its interference. At the present time Perugia owns and operates both a mill and a bakery, and Forlì a bakery; but no large city of France or of Italy has undertaken such an enterprise until, quite recently, Catania. The experiment of Catania has been watched far beyond the bounds of Sicily, and from Milan to Naples people are measuring its success and discussing the desirability of following her example.

To show how vital this question of good and cheap bread is, the condition of the inhabitants of Positano may be taken as an example. Like the greater part of the towns of Southern Italy, it has been left behind in the march of the world's progress. Its young men leave their homes, the guidebooks have been saying, and travel through the ex-kingdom of Naples as hawkers; but now it is nearer the truth to say that of its 3,000 natural inhabitants more than a third are in New York. "With the exception of a few boatmen, the population therefore consists chiefly of old men, women, and children." The old women, with distaff and spindle and old hand-looms, make a coarse sacking from refuse hemp, and earn a lira a day. The young women have been taught lace-making in the public school, and their cushions and pins may be found in all the houses. Their work is slower and more exacting, and they earn even less than a lira a day. The shoemaker works more than two days making by hand a pair of low shoes, walks to Sorrento, two hours distant, to buy his materials, for which he pays more than four liras, and then asks seven liras for his product—hardly more than a lira per diem. The letter-carrier, barefooted and ragged, a span-new leather pouch his only badge of office, is paid half a lira a day, and receives a dole at the door when he brings a package or registered letter. How can he live on his wage? He doesn't; fortunate man, he has a hard-working son in New York. But the women who bring down large bundles of fagots on their shoulders from the mountain villages do not seem to earn more than the postman, if one may judge from their bare feet and legs and their patched, short calico dresses.

What do these people eat? It begs the question to answer, as some one did, "They eat New York." For breakfast one eats five centimes' worth of bread—a cent's worth; at noon, more bread, a raw onion or tomato, or occasionally a piece of fish, and this costs a man twenty centimes. At night he may eat macaroni with a vegetable, beans or polenta (cornmeal mush), and bread and perhaps a little wine; and this costs him sixty centimes. If one adds three cents for contingencies, rent, clothing, et cetera, the lira a day is consumed. Fuel to keep himself warm he never has, rarely needs. His home usually has but one or two rooms, and, if he has not inherited it, he can hire one of three or four rooms, rather weak in doors and windows, yet habitable enough in this climate, for four cents a day. A quart of wine, costing nine or ten cents, lasts a moderate man a week. He may choose bread and water for breakfast and supper, and a minestra, a meal of soup, made of bread and water and vege-

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tables and a little fat. A few figs or a little fruit, an orange, or a medlar or two, may sometimes afford a change of diet; all, perhaps, grown just outside his door. Bread, then, is his mainstay—bread bought of the baker in this land of fireless houses. Every soldo's worth of fuel is carefully reckoned where such numbers of people live in great misery. A few sticks kindled in a corner on the stone floor is enough to warm the minestra, and a few bricks taken from the wall above lets the smoke out, if not so successfully as most chimneys. In few houses of the poor can be found a stove that will bake bread—at best there is only a brazier. A few buy a little flour, mix it crudely, and take it to the baker's and pay him so much per kilo for baking it in his oven. It is a hard, unpalatable-looking thing, which requires much soaking in water before it is eaten. If these are the conditions in which all but a few in Positano live, how can they be much better in Naples, where half a million people have even less elbow-room? Meat they rarely can have, except haply at Easter or Christmas, and eggs are all but unknown. No wonder they kill even the song-birds for food.

As in France, almost every Italian town has its tax-gatherers stationed at its approaches, levying an impost chiefly on whatever is used for food. Not long ago a law was passed making it obligatory for all towns, whenever their finances had reached a certain degree of prosperity, to abolish the "dazio," as this toll is called. This law took effect, as far as Catania was concerned, the first of last July. About the same time there was a change in the personnel of the city government. The citizens expected that a fall in the price of bread would follow the abolishment of this tax on flours and meals, but the bakers formed a union and maintained prices. There was enough indignation to induce the new city officials to make an investigation of the question of both cost and quality. In consequence, they demanded a reduction in the price of ordinary bread five centimes on a kilo. The bakers refused, in spite of popular feeling and the suffering caused the poor; and, forming a still stricter union, they threatened not only a general strike, but also an increase of four centimes in the price of a kilo. There was little inclination under these circumstances for a purely academic discussion such as has been going on in Naples, and as would be worth stopping to consider if your space permitted.

On the refusal of the local bakers to accept the conditions made by the city, there was great popular indignation, and when the authorities insisted and declared their intention of opening public bakeries to provide the people with bread, many citizens freely offered their assistance. Brick ovens are found in not a few of the better private houses, and these were offered for the city's use, and many of the smaller shops offered to sell without accepting the proffered commission of 5 per cent.; others gave their services in the actual process of bread-making. A single large bakery was secured. Seeing that their side was losing the contest, the bakers applied to the city for employment, and, out of compassion for their families, they were given work both in the municipal bakeries and in retailing the bread on commission. Then they attempted to ruin the movement by spoiling the bread in the baking, and by selling it only after it had grown stale. Finally, they tried to starve out the town by deserting the bread in the dough. Discharged from the city's employment, they assembled and requested to be allowed to reopen their shops. This was permitted, but they found that they could not compete with the city, for the simple reason that a single large establishment, producing exceptional quantities and exacting only a small profit on every hundredweight, can succeed where a smaller undertaking fails in the effort to give the same quality at the same price. Instead of the advanced price demanded by the bakers, Catania reduced the price for the ordinary quality, first from 36 or 37 to 28 centimes per kilo, and then to 22 centimes, a rate of two cents a pound—ten centimes a kilo less than the current price in Naples for bread of the same quality.

The public immediately perceived an improvement in the quality of the bread furnished by the city. Now, after a struggle of eight months, the bakers have again reopened their bakeries, with the approval of the city, submitting to all the rules imposed upon them, and accepting the city's price-list. The general public looks on with a certain indignation at the course they have pursued. The working bakers of the municipal plant have agreed never to resume work in any of the bakeries now reopened or to be reopened, as they labor now under more equitable conditions and with less fatigue, and receive better wages. These have become enthusiastic supporters of the new movement. Catania has recently opened a large central modern bakery. Thirty-four ovens, with a capacity of 2,500 kilogrammes, were in use the first day, and this number is being increased as rapidly as possible. On the second day, forty ovens were in operation, and 70,000 kilos of bread were baked and sold. It is now intended to open branch bakeries in the various parts of the city and its suburbs.

A detailed statement has been issued for the benefit of those communities, large or small, like Naples or Nocera Inferiore, which contemplate following in Catania's footsteps. The books are open for investigation and confirmation of this statement. It is based on the experiences of the past eight months, excluding only the period of organization, during which citizens gave their services without pay. On a basis of a productive power of 600 quintals (or 60,000 kilos) a day, a net profit to the city is shown of about 138 liras a day, or, in round numbers, 50,000 liras a year. It is claimed that this profit is not due merely to the abolition of the dazio, because other places have been affected by the law abolishing it and there has been no consequent reduction in the price of the bread sold in those places, but whatever profit has arisen has accrued to the manufacturer. Catania claims that the profit of the municipal plant springs chiefly from reduced expenses consequent upon the centralization of production and modern equipment, from increased consumption, and from the direction of an energetic and capable business man. The production is now intrusted to about 500 laborers; the middlemen and the unskilful and incapable are excluded. These are divided into squads, which relieve each other at intervals, under only the necessary superintendence.

There are one or two items in this statement worth quoting. The men who mix and knead the bread are paid about four liras a day; 100 kilos of flour make 119 kilos of bread. Two mixers are employed to produce 600 quintals a day, at a cost of 1.3 centimes per 100 kilos. Two engineers are employed; one by day, whose daily wage is 2.40 liras, and one by night at 2.60—a dollar a day for both together. Supervision costs seven liras per day. There are also the items of heating the ovens, illumination and motor power, which diminish proportionately with increasing production. This expense, according to experts, amounts to 246.60 liras per day, or .411 per quintal. Rent costs 5,500 liras a year, or .025 per quintal, and the commission for selling, 5 per cent.

The three chief advantages alleged by Catania to have been secured by its experiment are that its inhabitants have never before been supplied with bread of so good a quality, never at so low a price; and this result has been effected not only without expense to the city, but with an actual profit at the rate of 50,000 liras a year. The bread now provided is made of unadulterated flour, and consequently is more nutritive and healthier, whereas that previously sold was too often made of dishonest mixtures of the poorest qualities of flour, even when nothing worse entered into its composition. Consequently, it is claimed as an advantage arising from this socialistic experiment that there ensues a greater freedom from disease among the laboring classes, fewer working days are lost, and less money needs to be spent for doctors and medicines.

The records of the office of the dazio prove that, before the city began to manufacture bread, 3,000 quintals a month of farinella were brought into Catania, and that none passes its limits now. Farinella is the term applied to the worst grades of flour—and in Italy twelve or thirteen qualities are distinguished—flour made from wheat that has spoiled in the field or grown damp and sour in storage. This Italian word, farinella, is synonymous with roguery. Statistics of the past ten years prove that, in spite of notable reductions in the price of flours and meals in different years, a high price for bread has been maintained in Catania until now. In fact, the price has always risen with the price of flour and remained at the same point with its fall. During the past months the price of bread has always remained below that of flour. The city claims that the benefits of its economical management, its centralized production, are felt exclusively by the consumers, who also enjoy the profit arising from the extension of the enterprise. The records of the office of the dazio prove also that the consumption of flour has increased one-fifth over previous periods. This may mean that the reduced price enables people to buy more bread, and this is credible in view of the well-established fact of the insufficient nutrition of the working classes in Italy. Or it may mean that when the city became the only consumer of flour, flour ceased to be smuggled into the city; to the profit of the local finances, and therefore the benefit of the general public. Both explanations may be true.

At a baker's in Ravello three qualities of flour were found in use—a good quality of wheat flour, and a very poor quality, and one resembling "Graham" flour. For the hotels a raised white bread is made and a

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good quality of "Graham" bread. Then there is a bread made of a mixture of the Graham and the poorer quality of flour, which is sold at 24 centimes a kilo. This is also made into small narrow strips, baked hard, and sold stale under the name of "biscotti." This is in common use by the poorest in the place. Soaked in water, it becomes their staple diet. Another form of bread sold by this baker is called Pizza, and apparently is made of a very coarse cornmeal, mixed with water and a little salt, and baked in sheets in a hot oven. It is rather less palatable than our negroes' "hoe-cake," and is considered an unwholesome food in hot weather.

THE INTERNATIONAL HISTORICAL CONGRESS.

ROME, April 10, 1903.

The second International Congress of Historical Sciences closed yesterday after an eight days' session. The number of persons in attendance, and the number and quality of the papers presented, have far exceeded expectations. Nearly 2,500 members, of whom 300 were foreigners, have been enrolled, and 1,800 were present—so many that late comers, who had neglected to get their tickets before March 1, had to be excluded. The truly international character of the Congress is shown by the fact that it embraced representatives of eighteen different countries, including Japan, China, and India in the Far East, and Chile, Paraguay, Brazil, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela in South America. France sent the largest foreign delegation, as the French Government took pains to appoint one or more representatives of each university and professional school, including the Écoles de Droit and des Lettres at Algiers. The German delegation was, of course, strong in scholarship, but, except Harnack, it contained nobody of general reputation outside of his particular specialty. Indeed, no better illustration of the extent to which specializing has gone could be had than the fact that here were scores of men, each of whom was a recognized authority in his department, although he might not be known even by name to members of another department meeting in an adjoining hall.

The American delegation was unfortunately small. Those enrolled were Prof. H. E. Bourné (Western Reserve); Prof. E. C. Richardson (Princeton); W. R. Thayer (Harvard, American Historical Association, Massachusetts Historical Society); ex-Ambassador A. D. White; Worthington C. Ford and Herbert Putnam (Library of Congress); and E. B. Clapp, W. J. Carey, and Bernard Moses of the University of California. Prof. Spingarn of Columbia University, although not a delegate, was also enrolled. If the daily records of members registered can be trusted, Mr. Thayer was the only American delegate who took part in the proceedings.

The British Government did not appoint official representatives, but among the thirty British delegates present were several whose works are familiar wherever English is read. Most distinguished of them all was James Bryce, and, besides him, I may mention Frederic Harrison, Sir Frederick Pollock, Professor Mahaffy, Horatio F. Brown, the historian of Venice, Yorke Powell, Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford, Sir Richard Jebb, D. B. Monro, and H. J. Pelham (Oxford), G. W. Prothero, president of the Royal Historical Society, Prof. Oscar Browning (Cambridge), James Mackinnon (St. Andrews), S. A. Murray (British Museum), and Sir Alfred Lyall, delegate from British India.

Among the 1,500 Italians were nearly all the eminent scholars of the peninsula. One regretted the absence, however, of Carducci, whom Italy unites in honoring as her foremost man of letters, and who may well be regarded as Europe's chief poet since Victor Hugo died. As ill-health kept him at home, the Congress telegraphed its greetings to him. Ettore Pais, the historian of Ancient Rome, and Cesare Lombroso were also absent; but with Comparetti, D'Ancona, Dalla Vedova, Tocco, De Cesare, —to mention only a few—Italian scholarship was finely represented.

A preliminary meeting for organizing was held on April 1 in the great hall of the Collegio Romano—the vast structure a dozen rooms of which were given up to the Congress. It chose Prof. Pasquale Villari President, and four vice-presidents, Adolf Harnack (Germany), Paul Meyer (France), James Bryce (England), and Basil Modestor (Russia). The next day it appeared that, by some unexplained process, Ludwig Pastor (Austria) had been added to the list of vice-presidents. This business was hardly over before one of the Berlin professors jumped up to announce that his august sovereign had sent the Congress a gift, and that some arrangement must be made to receive it "solemnly." A special time had already been set apart for receiving gifts, but that would not do for the Kaiser. Accordingly, the next day after the dedication of the *Forma Urbis*, a Prussian soldier appeared with some albums of photographs, and Rector Gierke "solemnly" presented them to an indifferent audience. Except to gratify Wilhelm's passion for notoriety, there was no more reason why he should thrust these pictures of German excavations on the Congress than why President Roosevelt should send a Rough Rider with a volume of views of the Great Serpent Mound in Ohio.

The formal opening of the Congress took place at the Capitol on April 2. The municipal hall, witness of many historical events, would not hold the concourse of *Congressisti*, besides the King and Queen, their escorts, and cabinet officials. Prince Prospero Colonna, Syndic of the city, spoke in behalf of Rome; Nasi, Minister of Public Instruction, followed with a brief survey of Italian scholarship; and then the President, Prof. Villari, delivered a memorable oration, in which he touched on the general advance in historical methods, on the solidarity of science, and on the problems which historians should help to solve. The nineteenth century, he said, established the principle of nationalities, and secured the economic and political enfranchisement of the laboring classes. The task of the twentieth century is to discover permanent relations, which shall be just, between the white and the colored races. The United States abolished negro slavery at the cost of a million lives, but the negro question is more insistent than ever; and the relations between white Europeans and Americans and the native swarms of Africa and Asia are bound to hinge at last on social rather than on political considerations. "Who knows," he asked, "how soon the United States and Russia, the two young giants of the modern world, may control the destiny of all the rest?"

After the exercises, the delegates followed the royal party to the palace of the Conservators, where was dedicated the *Forma Urbis*. This consists of 1059 fragments of a plan of the city of Rome at the time of Severus. The wall of a courtyard of the palace has been given up to the *Forma*, of which only a few of the fragments have been put in place, under the direction of Prof. Lanciani. Enough has been recovered to enable archæologists to reconstruct a complete map of Rome in the third century of the Christian era.

During the afternoon of April 2, several of the sections got to work, and it appeared at once that the term "historical" was used in a most comprehensive sense; for the Congress was divided into the following eight sections, several of which were further subdivided into groups: Section I., (a) Ancient history; (b) epigraphy; (c) classical philology; (d) comparative philology. Section II., (a) mediæval and modern history; (b) method; (c) archivistics, bibliography, and allied sciences. In this section, one session was devoted to diplomatics and another to Napoleonic history. Section III., history of literatures. Section IV., (a) archæology; (b) numismatics; (c) history of music and the drama; (d) history of art. Section V., history of law, history of economic and social sciences. Section VI., history of geography—historical geography. Section VII., history of philosophy and religions. Section VIII., history of the mathematical, physical, natural, and medical sciences. Each of the sections or subdivisions held three-hour sessions both morning and afternoon; the earlier session being usually devoted to the discussion of general topics, the later to the reading of papers.

To summarize the work of even one section would of course be impossible. The papers were of all descriptions, and their treatment differed very widely. One scholar discussed so highly specialized a matter as the worship of Mithras in Picenum, while another generalized on the problem of the philosophy of history. The judicious *Congressisti* went from one section to another, according as the interest of the topic or the distinction of the speaker attracted them. The stars of the Congress were Harnack, Sabatier, and Boni. Harnack outlined in less than an hour his well-known views on the genesis of the New Testament. Sabatier was to speak on Brother Elias, but, unfortunately, the Italians in his section fell to wrangling over the publication of a *Corpus Chartarum Italiæ*, and used up the morning; and as he had to leave Rome the next day, he could not give his lecture. Boni described the excavation of the Roman Forum, which he has superintended, in a lecture full of important matter for the archæologist and the historian, but hardly suited to the occasion. The distinguished architect is a dry writer, and so poor a lecturer that even those persons who sat near enough to hear him soon ceased to pay attention. Subsequently, at an evening lecture, he illustrated his subject with stereopticon views. Equally important was his report on the Roman materials found among the débris of the Campanile of St. Mark's. They include a collection, mostly inedited, of stamps of the

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CARNEGIE BRANCH

Roman brickkilns on the Adriatic from the first to the third century; of prints of human feet, horseshoes, hob-nailed boots; of various animals—goat, calf, and pig—and of a marsh bird. Comm. Boni also showed drawings of the structure of the Campanile, down to the lowest piles. I may add, in passing, that he found these foundations in perfect condition, so that the rebuilding of the Campanile can be begun at once, and will take only three years instead of eight or ten, as originally estimated.

One of the labors of the Congress which may bear direct fruit was the discussion of ways of collecting, editing, and publishing great masses of material, or of facilitating the investigations of scholars. Some of the resolutions passed by the various sections will show the drift of opinion. The section of mediæval and modern history hopes to see a thorough exploration of all the lands in the Levant and Adriatic which were once under the dominion of Venice, and it urges that a museum be established at Venice to preserve whatever objects may be collected. The numismatists recommend that henceforth collections of coins be arranged according to their geographico-topographic order, and that they be catalogued chronologically, instead of alphabetically. The section of music and the drama—in which Humperdinck and Dubois, director of the Paris Conservatoire, were conspicuous—would have the history of music illustrated by concrete selections, taught in musical institutions, so that the relation between music and the history and social conditions of each people shall be made clear. The geographers resolve that the Italian Geographical Society take steps to prepare a great historical atlas of Italy; and that it request the aid of scholars everywhere to compile a glossary of Italian territorial names at every epoch. The classical philologists vote that an edition of papyri containing Greek literary fragments—and especially of Homeric papyri—be made, letter by letter, after the norm of the Berlin publication. The modern historians call for a shortening of the time limit when state papers can be consulted; they suggest that documents down to the end of 1847 be now opened to inspection, and that to authors and professors of history still larger facilities be accorded. The historians of the fine arts recommend the issue of a Corpus of photo-mechanical facsimiles of the best Renaissance medals, and of a collection of facsimiles of Romanesque and Renaissance miniatures. In view of the bad condition of the plaster on which most of the Renaissance frescoes were painted, they recommend that plaster intended for paintings be prepared according to the rules laid down by Vitruvius in Book VII. of his 'Architecture.' The section of physical sciences wishes to undertake an edition of the complete works of Torricelli. The philosophers appeal to the Italian Government to publish a Corpus of the Renaissance Byzantine writers, and a series of the best monographs on Cesalpino, Cardano, etc. The bibliographers propose the compilation of an international historical bibliography.

A motion to proceed as soon as possible to the publication of a *Corpus Chartarum Italiæ* stirred up a hot debate, and was voted down as premature. A still livelier war raged over the attempt to secure the official approval of the Congress for the monumental edition of Muratori which has been edited by Professor Fiorini and is being published by Lapi at Città di Castello. President Villari opposed the resolution on the ground that it had been presented too late; moreover, he said, an international congress of this kind was not the proper place in which to decide a purely Italian question. This was an unexpectedly humorous turn to come from Signor Villari, who has a keen and comprehensive intellect, but no intentional humor; for nearly all of the resolutions passed by the other sections could as well have been ruled out as being "merely Italian." Some of the Germans reminded the President that they knew as much about Muratori and had as great an interest in him as the Italians themselves; but the resolution was lost, and in its stead a motion to "applaud" all editions and editors of Muratori was carried!

In so large a body of men, jealousies must naturally be looked for; but it was unfortunate that local or literary feuds were thrust upon the Congress. Few of us foreigners knew the animus behind them, and, even had we known, we should not have cared to take sides. In general, however, although the discussions often grew hot, they left no rancor; and much of the apparent heat might have been avoided if the sessions had been conducted according to Anglo-Saxon parliamentary rules. The Latin peoples show little respect for the presiding officer and none at all for the person speaking. They begin to hiss loudly for silence as soon as the meeting is called to order, and their hisses of course put an end to both silence and order. As soon as a speaker rises, they rush forward to be as near the tribune as possible, and there they stand, gesticulating, making loud comments, or hurling replies, till the next victim secures the floor. The spectacle of President Villari—a manikin in size, with pallid, ivory skin, white beard and hair, and an inexhaustible flow of language—bellowing and brandishing his fists at another distinguished Italian historian, who was trying to out-bellow and out-gesticulate him, was a surprise to many of the calmer Northerners, unaccustomed to such ways among scholars. But very possibly the disputants ate macaroni together in friendly calm as soon as the debate was adjourned. Certainly, a foreigner who judges hastily, where customs are so different from his own, runs the risk of misjudging.

The section of modern history devoted an afternoon to an especially interesting symposium on the teaching of history in secondary schools in various countries. Prof. Fredericq spoke for Belgium, Blok for Holland, Gertz for Denmark, Bresslau for Germany, Gabriel Monod for France, Altamira for Spain, W. R. Thayer (in the absence of Herbert Putnam) for the United States, James Bryce for England, and President Villari for Italy. As several of the speakers spoke on university, and not on secondary, instruction in history, no common ground for comparison was reached, but at no other session could one listen to such a picked body of speakers. Mr. Bryce was easily the most interesting, partly because, after a brief reference to the specified subject, he branched out into some general reflections on how history should be written. He said, at the outset, that there had been so little real teaching of history in the English universities that he hardly needed to speak of it. Within the memory of men now living, one of the universities had only one professor of history, who was expected to teach both natural history and human history combined! Mr. Bryce deplored the lack of seminars, laboratories, and other institutions, such as have long existed in Germany and the École des Chartes in Paris; but he added that, since 1894, the British universities have begun to wake up to the importance of a thorough training in history, and he hoped that, "in spite of our English conservatism," those universities would some time equal the best in this field elsewhere. Turning next to British historians, he said that, from Gibbon down to Green, they had all taught themselves history, since the universities offered no adequate instruction. Two qualities characterize their works: the literary quality and the human quality. They wrote histories to be read as literature; and they kept constantly in view the relation of the past to the present. Thanks to the sound classical training of the English universities, Englishmen have got their knowledge of Greek and Roman history at first hand, from the classics themselves, and so they have not divorced their historical writings from the *litteræ humaniores*. He closed with an urgent appeal that students and writers of history should cling to this higher ideal, and should resist to the utmost the encroachments of the physical sciences on the domain of culture, where history properly belongs.

Another important symposium was held in the section of international law on the evolution of comparative jurisprudence. Sir Frederick Pollock acted as chairman, and Frederic Harrison, Vinogradoff, Scialoja and others took part; but as your correspondent was prevented from attending it, he cannot report on it. Lack of space precludes more than passing mention of the announcement that the King has authorized Dr. Piumati to edit and print all the manuscripts of Leonardo da Vinci—news at which scholars the world over will rejoice. The reports of Prof. R. Orsi, of Syracuse, on the archæological explorations of the past fourteen years in Sicily and Magna Græcia, and of Professor Savignoni on the work achieved by the Italian mission in Crete, were among the most important contributions made to the Congress.

The Executive Committee, seconded by the municipal and national authorities, did all in their power to entertain the host of visitors. There were an illumination of the Colosseum and a concert at the Argentina Theatre, where the best choral societies of Rome sang specimens of sacred choral music from Palestrina to Rossini. Commissioner Nasi, Minister of Public Instruction, held a reception on the Palatine, where champagne flowed freely in the Palace of the Cæsars. The galleries of the Capitoline Museum and the Campidoglio itself were opened for an evening reception. The restoration of the ancient *rampa imperiale*, leading from the Forum to the Palatine, was dedicated. Count Gnoli, Librarian of the Biblioteca Vittorio Emanuele, exhibited an unparalleled collection of views, maps, and plans of Rome; the earliest dating from the fourth century. Prince Torlonia allowed the *Congressisti* to visit the Villa Albani, one of the sights of Rome which has become very rare; and there were

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many other courtesies, which one would like to register in full. At the close of the Congress, many of its members went on an excursion to Norma and Sermoneta; but the tour of Sicily, which had been planned, was given up, as the necessary 300 persons did not enroll.

The last two days, the *Congressisti* suffered with the rest of Rome from a general sympathetic strike which called out the cabmen and 'busmen, stopped all but one newspaper, and alarmed the nervous. The Prime Minister, Zanardelli, and the Minister of the Interior, Giolitti, with solicitude which ought to close their political career, foreseeing trouble, disappeared the day before the general strike came on; the one to the outskirts of Brescia, the other to the confines of Piedmont. But, thanks to those officials who dared to stay at home and face the responsibility, there was no rioting, and on the third morning the general strike collapsed through the protests of the strikers themselves. Strangers naturally felt the inconvenience at the time; but as they look back they will not be sorry that this episode gave them the best proof of the common sense and orderliness of the great majority of the Roman people, and of the wholesome vigor of the new régime in Italy. One gets the impression that the young King is not only the most highly cultivated sovereign in Europe, but also a ruler of real ability, quiet but prevailing, judicious, just.

Before finally adjourning, a call, signed by representatives of the European countries and of the United States, was issued for the convocation of the next International Historical Congress at Berlin in 1906. No one who has taken an active part in a gathering of this kind can fail to recognize the benefits, immediate or far-reaching, which spring from it.

Correspondence.

A WORD OF USELESS PROTEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We call the heads of our colleges presidents, but it is a misnomer. We have no college presidents. They are dictators, with more or less democratic methods, as they choose. It must be so in the nature of our educational régime. They are elected over the college or university by a foreign board, and they alone have access to this board. They can make or mar the position of any member of the faculty; and with this consciousness in the minds of the members of the faculty, they dominate faculty meetings and the whole process of the government of the institution. This may be thought best from a business point of view, but are colleges and universities strictly for business, or for higher ideals of human development?

In all the land there remained one university with something of democratic initiative in its government. Its great founder wished it to be democratic—at least as democratic as the German prototypes. Under this management it became confessedly the greatest seat of learning for a large section of the country. This preëminence it still maintains. It has to-day a larger number of advanced academic students than any other institution of learning in the South. In spite of all criticisms, it has much the highest standard. I have taken some trouble to investigate, and I believe it to be true that the M. A. degree at the University of Virginia requires harder work than any degree of any kind given at any institution in this country. Yet, with such a record to its credit, the State Legislature, in obedience to the autocratic business spirit of the day, has determined that it shall have a "president."

The present writer is not a graduate of the University of Virginia, but he is a Virginian who has always taken pride in the high standard of his State University and in the independence and dignity of its faculty. That these objects of just pride will depart with the entrance of a "president" is inevitable. There may come more loudness, more newspaper mention, perhaps even more students; but, as Epictetus says, nothing is to be had for nothing.

Very respectfully, Medius.

May 1, 1903.

BACON AND SHAKSPERE PARALLELS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of your recent Note on *out-* verbs, the New English Dictionary furnishes some of the most interesting and valuable testimony that has yet been advanced in the controversy about the authorship of Shakspere. The most attractive of all the arguments for the Baconian authorship is that drawn from the "deadly parallel." If it can be shown that the phrase or the figure which occurs in the parallel quotations was in common use during Bacon's time and before, the parallelism is deprived of its value as an argument. The quotations of the New English Dictionary make it possible to determine the value of these parallelisms as arguments.

The following is a good example. A. P. Sinnet says, in the *National Review:* "'Discourse of reason,' a phrase in 'Hamlet' that has been regarded as a misprint for 'discourse and reason,' is used several times by Bacon as it stands in the play, with the preposition 'of.'" This only shows that Mr. Sinnet and the commentators who did the regarding were not acquainted with an obsolete idiom of their mother tongue. If Mr. Sinnet had turned to the Dictionary, he would have found the phrase defined as "the process or faculty of reasoning," with quotations from 1413 and 1553. It was not a new or unusual phrase in Bacon's time.

Mr. Edwin Reed, in his 'Brief for the Plaintiff, Bacon vs. Shakespeare,' says:

"Perhaps the most interesting feature of the 'Promus' is the group of salutatory phrases it contains, such as *good-morning, good-day,* and *good-night,* which had not then come into use in England, but which occur four hundred and nineteen times in the Plays. These salutations, however, were common at that time in France, where Bacon, as attaché of the British Embassy, had spent three years in the early part of his life. To him we are doubtless indebted for these little amenities of speech."

In a footnote he adds: "One or two specimens have been found in earlier literature, but the statement in the text is substantially correct. These salutations did not take root in English speech till they were implanted there by the author of the Plays."

The editors of the Dictionary seem to have been entirely unaware of this interesting bit of literary history. The following quotations show that the English did not learn these salutations from Bacon:

c. 1386. Chaucer, Miller's Tale. "Hayl, maister Nicholay. Good morwe."

1430-1440. Lydgate, Bochas. "She rose her up. . . Without good day! or salutation."

c. 1460. Towneley Myst. "A good day, thou and thou."

c. 1420. Sir Amadas. "'Gud devon, dame,' seyd he."

1481. Caxton, Reynard. "Noble lord and lady god gyue you good morow."

1575. Gammer Gurton. "God deuen, my friend Diccon."

1577. B. Googe, Heresbach's Husb. "God morowe maister Rigo."

Twenty-eight quotations containing these salutations are given with dates from the year 1205 to 1589. Mr. Reed's statement is not substantially correct, and what may be the most interesting feature of the 'Promus' *cannot be considered a very valuable one.*

The great mass of the parallelisms are of the following nature: From Shakspere: "As the mournful crocodile With sorrow snares relenting passengers" (2 Henry VI., iii., 2). From Bacon: "It is the wisdom of crocodiles, that they shed tears when they would devour" (Essay of Wisdom). Sir John Maundeville told the story of the weeping "Cokadrilles" in about 1400. Hawkins repeated it in 1565. It was a matter of frequent literary allusion. Spenser devoted a whole stanza of 'The Faery Queen' to this legend. Five other quotations of authors contemporary with Bacon are given in the Dictionary. It would only be consistent to say that Bacon wrote their works too.

Here is another parallel: From Shakspere: "If it be true that good wine needs no bush, 'tis true that a good play needs no epilogue" (As You Like It). From Bacon: "Good wine needs no bush" (Promus). The following quotation shows that this expression was not original with Bacon: "Where the wine is neat, there needeth no Iuie-bush," 1580 (Lyly, Euphues). In this case Bacon and Shakspere were only using one of the stock phrases of the day.

Some of the parallelisms can be explained without the aid of the Dictionary. From Shakspere: "Brother, you have a vice of mercy in you, Which better fits a lion than a man" (Troilus and Cressida). From Bacon: "For of lions it is a received belief that their fury ceaseth toward any thing that yieldeth and prostrateth itself" (Of Charity). Mr. Reed makes this comment in a footnote: "In this instance, as in many others, it requires Bacon's prose to explain Shakspere's poetry." The parallel is made worthless as an argument because Bacon says the matter in question is a "received belief" or a matter of general information. There is nothing strange in both authors making use of a received belief. Dyer, in his 'Folklore of Shakspere,' gives a number of allusions to this belief in English literature from that and earlier periods.

Of all the parallelisms between Bacon and Shakspere by far the greater part can be traced to an earlier source. The only logical result of the line of argument pursued by the advocates of Baconian authorship is that Bacon wrote all the literature of his own time. C. K.

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JAYHAWKERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the request of Albert Matthews for examples of the use of *Jayhawkers* before 1859, it may be of interest to refer to statements made by William Lewis Manly (recently deceased) in his thrilling book, 'Death Valley in '49.' For several years the present writer has enjoyed the personal acquaintance of this heroic pioneer, who by voice corroborated the printed statements. As shown by the subjoined extracts, *Jayhawkers* is the name applied to a party of young emigrants to California, who, in the winter of 1849-50, experienced the horrors of Death Valley, and several of whom thereby lost their lives. Prominent among the party were Ed Doty, Tom Shannon, and L. D. Stevens (see p. 160); while among those that perished were Messrs. Fish and Isham (p. 162). In the book referred to, the word *Jayhawkers* is used scores of times. While Manly himself was not of the original party, his own party repeatedly crossed the track of the *Jayhawkers* in '49, and for parts of the way they travelled together.

On pp. 364-365, Manly gives what appears to be a virtually complete list of the names of the party. An account of the Death Valley Party of 1849, by the Rev. J. W. Brier, a survivor, is concluded in *Out West* for April, 1903.

Rockwell D. Hunt.

High School, San José, California,
April 22, 1903.

"The little train afterward known by this name was made up in the State of Illinois in 1849, of industrious, enterprising young men who were eager to see and explore the new country then promising gold to those who sought. The young men were from Knoxville, Galesburg, and other towns" (p. 320). "These Illinois boys were young and full of mirth and fun, which was continually overflowing. . . . One of the boys was Ed Doty, who was a sort of model traveller in this line. . . . One day when Doty was engaged in the duty of cooking flap-jacks, another frolicsome fellow came up and took off the cook's hat and commenced going through the motions of a barber, giving his customer a vigorous shampoo, saying: '*I am going to make a Jayhawker out of you, old boy.*' Now it happened at the election for captain in this division that Ed Doty was chosen captain, and no sooner was the choice declared than the boys took the newly elected captain on their shoulders and carried him around the camp, introducing him as *the King Bird of the Jayhawkers.* So their division was afterwards known as The Jayhawkers, but whether the word originated with them, and John Brown forgot to give them credit, or whether it was some old frontier word used in sport on the occasion, is more than I will undertake to say; however, the boys felt proud of their title, and the organization has been kept up to this day by the survivors" (pp. 321-322). "Some years afterward the members of this party who had returned to their Eastern homes formed themselves into an organization which they called the Jayhawkers' Union, appointed a chairman and secretary, and each year every one whose name and residence could be obtained was notified to be present at some designated place on the fourth day of February, which was the date on which they considered they passed from impending death into a richly promising life" (pp. 363-364).

BLIZZARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I don't know that I can give an answer, in the form he desires, to Mr. Matthews's question of April 9, with regard to the use of the term "blizzard" prior to 1880, but my first practical experience of the real thing was from November 12 to 15 of 1872, when, on my return from the discovery of the great diamond fraud of that year, I had stopped off at Cheyenne, Wyoming, to visit a cattle ranch—then a new experiment—in which I had a slight pecuniary interest. The so-called ranch consisted of a small cabin on the open plains about nine miles south of Cheyenne. During the three days I was forced to spend there, our time was mainly occupied in gathering fuel to keep ourselves from freezing. The force of the wind was such that we could not venture away from the shelter of the cabin, and it was considered madness to attempt to return to town. The thermometer, as I afterwards learned, ranged at about 20 degrees below zero.

I have no files of the New York *Herald* at hand to refer to, but my impression is that, upon obtaining copies of that paper, we found accounts of this terrific storm, which was far fiercer than anything I had experienced during six years' previous campaigning in the Western mountains, and which it had called a "blizzard," a name which struck me at the time as new and as singularly expressive.—Yours truly,

S. F. Emmons.

1721 H Street, Washington, D. C.,
April 30, 1903.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am indebted to Dr. Green for his example of this word in yesterday's *Nation*. In regard to "the ship *Blizard*," mentioned in a Boston newspaper of 1765, Dr. Green remarks: "From the fact that it was applied to a ship, I infer that the word originated among sailors." May I be allowed to suggest that this inference is not a necessary one, and that perhaps the vessel was called after some person (possibly its owner) named Blizard? As early as March, 1656-7, a Humfrey Blizard matriculated at Merton College, Oxford; in the eighteenth century the name is found both in England and in the West Indies; and now the surname is not uncommon in this country. It appears in the forms Blisard, Blissard, Blizard, and Blizzard. There is at present, so far as I am aware, no evidence to connect the word *blizzard* with the proper name.

Albert Matthews.

Boston, May 1, 1903.

MONT PELÉ.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Americans and English seem always to write "Mont Pelée." It is not a capital error, to be sure, but is still annoying to those accustomed to the invariable French practice, "Mont Pelé." The longer feminine form is naturally written "Montagne Pelée." Yours truly,

F. R. W.

Paris, April 23, 1903.

[The solecism is of long standing in our best encyclopædias. It finds a parallel in "Morne Pelée" (an alternative designation), which occurs in C. W. Eves's 'West Indies' (4th ed., 1897).—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

'Evenings in Little Russia,' translated from Gogol by Edna W. Underwood and William H. Cline, will soon be issued by William S. Lord, Evanston, Ill.

Doubleday, Page & Co. announce that the new volume of Kipling's Poems will bear the title of 'The Five Nations.' Twenty-five of them have never before been printed.

In the poetic line, G. P. Putnam's Sons are about to bring out 'Echoes from Erin,' by William Westcott Fink; 'Notes from Nature's Lyre,' by Howard Beck Reed; 'Puerto Rican and Other Impressions,' by William James; besides 'Florida Fancies,' by Frederick R. Swift, a tale of fishing and hunting expeditions remote from the beaten track.

'Shakspere and the Rival Poet,' namely, George Chapman, is the title of a work, by Arthur Acheson, of Chicago, announced by John Lane. Internal evidence as to this rivalry is sought to be adduced from the Sonnets.

From the office of the *Publishers' Weekly* has appeared the 'Annual Literary Index' for 1902—the annual 'Poole,' in other words, plus the Index to General Literature (that is, to the contents of certain books, as contrasted with periodicals), plus an author-index to *both* sections, plus a list of the bibliographies of the year, a necrology, and an index to dates of principal events. The varied usefulness of this thin volume needs no further exhibition. Another issue from the same source is the 'Annual American Catalogue Cumulated, 1900-1902,' a triennial combination, prefaced by statistics of book production for the past year, the report of the Register of Copyrights for 1901-1902, and a directory of American publishers who put forth books in the period here recorded. This is the second stage of the cumulative experiment begun last year.

The 'Year Book of the Pennsylvania Society' of this city for 1903 maintains the interesting character of the series, at least on the antiquarian and pictorial side. Noticeable is the summary sketch of the Governors of the State derived from the fourth series of the Pennsylvania Archives, and illustrated with autographic facsimiles. The literature especially related to Pennsylvania is well looked after. The speeches at the fourth annual dinner are the meagrest part of the feast. Nowhere is there an intimation of the political degradation of Pennsylvania through the corruption of both parties. Mr. Baer, the vigorous President of the Reading, could not fail to revert to the recent coal strike, and to charge the State with failure to protect her citizens "in the simplest and smallest of all natural rights for the protection of which government is founded—the right to work." But even he did not connect that failure with the very fountain of corruption at Harrisburg and in the United States Senate. The chaplain, Dr. Batten, did better, for, Philippinewise, he prayed that the Constitution might follow the flag, and, domestically, asked: "If we really love America, shall we permit its citizens to be governed by thieves?"

The late Hepworth Dixon's 'History of William Penn' has been reprinted by the

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New Amsterdam Book Company in a neat volume with a portrait.

The dainty little "Lovers' Library" of John Lane once more departs from its original intention of including only classic English verse of the tender passion, to take in Miss Jane Minot Sedgwick's 'Love Songs from the Greek'; and these are accordingly printed in green ink suitable for a green thought in a green shade.

"Love's Labour's Lost" is the second of the commendable series of reprints of the First Folio undertaken by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). We observe that the editors' preface is repeated, as is well in view of separate sale; but the introduction is pertinent to the play. The notes, variorum readings, and selected criticisms more than half fill the handy volume.

More elegant, in fact unusually handsome, are the "Othello" in the Dowden Shakspere of Bowen-Merrill Co., Cleveland, of which the editing has been intrusted to H. C. Hart, and the "Cymbeline," which Professor Dowden has taken for his province. The various readings and the notes are on the same page with the text, in a very lucid and harmonious proportion.

Mr. H. W. Boynton's task in continuing the "Cambridge Edition" of poets which used to be Mr. Scudder's especial charge, in the case of the Complete Poetical Works of Alexander Pope (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has been for the first time to include all within the limits of a single volume, and to observe an approximate chronological ordering. He has also discarded all but Pope's twelve books of the Odyssey, and has taken a proper liberty with the notes, which are relegated to the end, with a glossary of names of Pope's contemporaries mentioned in the poems. There is the usual biographic-critical introduction. Add a portrait and a title-page vignette showing Twickenham villa. The volume of nearly 700 pages is not bulky, and its inclusiveness leads us to remark that there exists a Concordance to Pope—namely, Edwin Abbott's, published in 1875 by Messrs. Appleton.

We have received from the Research Publication Society, No. 14 Beacon Street, Boston, Part I. of 'The Higginsons in England and America,' by Eben Putnam.

It is unfortunate that few teachers of history in our country have had even a little training for work in the ancient field. Mr. West, in his 'Ancient History' (Allyn & Bacon), betrays this lack of preparation by constant misinterpretation of sources as well as by his misstatement of facts which should be known to every schoolboy. Characteristic of the author are the assertions (on p. 157) that Herodotus wrote his history "after the fall of Athens, when it was unpopular to praise her," and that, in the battle of Mycale, "the Greeks first destroyed a great Persian land army, and then, re-embarking, they seized and burned the three hundred Persian ships." In considerable parts, however, he has attained accuracy by a culpable sacrifice of independence. Noteworthy, too, are the tendency to disproportion, which sacrifices important periods to the unimportant; the elimination of the personal element from the Roman imperial era, which makes his treatment difficult as well as dry; and finally the ready adoption of new theories, however erratic—for instance, that of Ridgeway. Wolfson's 'Essentials in Ancient History' (The American Book Co.) has most of West's faults highly magnified, and in addition a vicious style.

The *Consular Reports* for April opens with an interesting illustrated account, by Consul E. H. Thompson of Progreso, of the cultivation and preparation, for the market, of sisal, the Yucatan fibre. It is generally known in commerce as sisal grass or hemp, but the fact is "that it is neither a grass nor a fibre, and is not produced to any great extent in Sisal. The name 'sisal' was applied to it because it originally reached the outer world through the port of that name." Other subjects treated are the copper, silver, and gold mines in Latin America, and the North Sea fisheries, with notice of Professor McIntosh's tabulation of the catches made during a series of years by a vessel properly fitted out for the purpose, as published in his 'Resources of the Sea.' He is convinced from them that the fears of an ultimate extinction, or even a perceptible diminution, of the fish supply are entirely baseless.

The development of the East Africa Protectorate through colonization and irrigation is discussed in the *Geographical Journal* for April by Mr. R. B. Buckley, a leading irrigation expert of India. The population at present averages only about ten to twelve persons per square mile, and the most temperate and healthy parts are practically uninhabited. These could be colonized by Europeans, while the surplus population of India might be induced to occupy the lowlands. It is not a country for grand irrigation projects, but small storage works could be scattered along the streams. The Government is advised to institute a model agricultural farm, with some irrigation works to serve as a model and guide to settlers. Dr. W. G. Smith and Mr. C. E. Moss give the results, with a map and illustrations, of a survey of vegetation in Yorkshire to solve the question, "How are the species arranged with regard to one another, and with regard to soil and climate?" A young American traveller, Mr. A. Hamilton Rice, tells of a journey made by him in 1901 from Quito to the Amazon by the River Napo. The greater part, apparently, was through a dreary country, inhabited by people with whom "the regular thing in the Sabbath afternoons is to get as drunk as possible." When the Peruvian border was crossed, "a strangely incongruous sight is to see an almost nude Indian woman using a sewing-machine, making calico dresses for her children, yet it is not an uncommon event. Even among those Indians who eat squatting on the floor, with fingers for forks, knives, and spoons, the sole article of household furniture may be a Pan-American or a New Haven sewing-machine, in which the female members take the greatest pride."

Petermann's Mitteilungen, No. 2, contains an interesting account of the Brazilian rubber industry. The best product comes from the *Siphonia*, and the sap is collected, from May to October, by tapping the trees every other day. The holes made in the bark close in two hours. An orchard consists on the average of 200 trees, from which the owner may get from 1,000 to 2,000 pounds a year of gum, selling for a little over $2 a pound in Europe. The kind known there as caoutchouc is obtained only by felling the trees, and is consequently disappearing, while the *Para-fina* is increasing through cultivation. The gum obtained from the cultivated trees, however, is not so good as that from the wild tree. Other articles are upon the geographical changes of the North German coast since the glacial period, and upon Upper Burma and the Shan States.

The unanimous vote of the Swedish Riksdag to grant 75,000 kroner to Dr. Sven Hedin, to enable him to publish in *English* the scientific results of his last great journey in Central Asia, is a remarkable evidence of disinterested enthusiasm for the advancement of general knowledge. One volume and a large atlas will contain Dr. Hedin's report on the geography of the 6,500 miles of country which he traversed and mapped on 1,149 sheets, having fixed the position of 113 points by astronomical observations. To these and the meteorological observations other volumes will be devoted, as well as to the geological, botanical, and zoölogical collections, and the Chinese manuscripts and inscriptions. The volume dealing with the manuscripts will be prepared by Dr. Himly of Wiesbaden, the well-known sinologist; the others will be edited by Swedish experts.

It has been generally known that paper was originally an invention of the Chinese, and was first brought to Europe by the Crusaders, finding its way to Germany as early as 1190. It has now been the good fortune of Sven Hedin to furnish the ocular proof of this historic fact. He found, on his recent journeys, Chinese paper that dates back to the second half of the third century after Christ. This lay buried in the sand of the Gobi desert, near the former northern shore of the Lop Nor sea, where, in the ruins of a city and in the remnants of one of the oldest houses, he discovered a goodly lot of manuscripts, many of paper, covered with Chinese script, preserved for some 1,650 years. The date is Dr. Himly's conclusion. According to Chinese sources, paper was manufactured as early as the second millennium before the Christian era. The character of the Gobi desert find makes it probable that the making of paper out of vegetable fibres was already an old art in the third Christian century.

Volume XXX., Part iii. (pp. 209 + xl), of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan, contains a "History of the Rise of Political Parties in Japan," by Mr. A. H. Lay, which brings the story down to the end of 1902. It is a masterly résumé of political development from the epochal "charter oath" of the Mikado in Kioto, in 1868, showing how, in spite of rebellions at home and wars abroad, "the intensely democratic nature of the Japanese people" asserted itself. The final goal of the ambition of the various parties—all being of reform, none of reaction—cannot be far off, and that is the control of the administration, with full budgetary power. Loyalty to the Emperor has never been lost sight of. Mr. Lay's conclusion is that as the parties have rid themselves of their unruly and dangerous elements, and learned the lessons of responsibility, they have more and more gained the public confidence. In a word, the nation has in one generation been transformed from feudalism to modern life. Most valuable to the student of modern Japanese literature are the hundred pages or more devoted to a classified list of recently published Japan-

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ese books, with name, author, publisher, price, and title in English, Romanized Japanese, and Chinese characters. With all their avidity for science, the Japanese in their imaginative and historical writing draw from their own national story. Rev. Arthur Lloyd, librarian, 56 Tsukiji, Tokio, will be glad to act as intermediary for the purchase of translations of any of these native works. A list of the principal publishers in Japan, minutes of meetings, etc., conclude the highly creditable series of thirty volumes.

The centennial celebration of the University of Heidelberg, to be held during the coming summer in honor of its revival by Carl Friedrich of Baden, in 1803, will naturally not be on so extensive a scale as was the semi-millennium celebration in 1886, but will, nevertheless, be a notable event, to which all the other German universities and technological institutes have been invited. Among other things, an imposing memorial building is being erected, and the Grand Duke, as the Rector Magnificentissimus, has promised to take a prominent part in the celebration, which will not be made an international event.

The list of the British Commission for the St. Louis Exposition was announced in London on April 24. Among the Commissioners figures the name of Mr. Edwin A. Abbey, R. A., and his inclusion on a British Commission becomes a matter of serious consideration for American artists. By accepting such a position Mr. Abbey either renounces his American citizenship and all claims to show as an American artist in the St. Louis Exposition, or he is endeavoring to become a citizen of two countries at the same time—an impossibility both nationally and artistically. The fact that an American artist resides abroad for many years for the purpose of pursuing his profession should in no way affect his position and rights as an American citizen and artist; and he should, of course, be at liberty to join any foreign art society. But the line should be drawn, and drawn sharply, when he throws in his lot with a foreign country by accepting an official position from its Government. Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema, who was in very much the same predicament, settled the question many years ago, and has always identified himself with the country to whose Royal Academy he belongs.

—The announcement that the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers in London has leased the New Gallery, Regent Street, for the winter seasons of 1904, 1905, and 1906, is of special interest in more than one way to American artists. In the first place, the Society, which deserves its name of International, has for President an American artist, one of the most distinguished, Mr. Whistler; while other Americans figure prominently on the Council, among the Associates, and as honorary members, including Alexander, Chase, MacMonnies, Melchers, Pennell, St.-Gaudens, Shannon, Humphreys-Johnston, and Morrice. In the second place, the Society has become the most important exhibiting body in London for the foreigner. Though three or four Americans have been elected to the Academy, it is well known that almost all other American artists, and indeed all foreigners, have little chance of being treated with civility in the Academy's exhibitions, even if their work should by mistake be accepted. Up to the present, the foreigner has not been encouraged to show in London except at the dealers' galleries. But the International depends largely on foreigners, and, moreover, it has the grace to be as generous in its treatment of outsiders as of its own members. What the Council aims at is to show good work, wherever it may be found. This is a fact that should be noted to its credit, especially now when the tendency of societies of artists in London is to lessen, rather than to extend, the privileges of outsiders. Even the New English Art Club, supposed to be more liberal than the average, is increasing its restrictions. The first two exhibitions of the International were held at Knightsbridge, the third at the Institute. Now in the New Gallery the Society has secured by far the best exhibiting rooms in the very heart of London. Part of its work has been the organization of the British section in international exhibitions abroad, with very notable results at Carlsruhe, Budapest, and Dresden. It would be interesting if it could show in its full strength some day in America, when, probably, American artists would see still more reason for giving it their support.

—One looks naturally for special consideration of Emerson in the magazines of the centenary month. In the *Atlantic* he is studied by the Rev. George A. Gordon, as a religious influence. The article will provoke dissent in its attempt at a too rigid limitation of this influence. Hamilton W. Mabie, in *Harper's*, says that Emerson, more distinctly than any other American, "affirmed the presence of the divine in every human being, the direct and personal relation between each man and the infinite, the authority of individual insight, the dignity of the individual soul." This sentence indicates the dominant tone of Mr. Mabie's discriminating article on "Emerson in 1903." In the *Century*, Emerson is treated editorially, and along with due recognition of his spiritual message one finds dissent from the tendency to undue depreciation of his literary art. The lack of constructive continuity is of course too evident for denial, but on the other side of the balance-sheet we have "the cosmic character of the separate sections," the melodious cadences that go along with the occasional roughness of his verse, "charming the mind and ear with an unearthly music," the keen vibration of sentence or phrase, "creating in the mind a sense of luminousness," each thought standing out as the natural product of a soul apart, a life unique, with "no pettiness to deplore, no derelictions to explain or forget." Aside from Emerson, the most striking points of strictly literary interest for the month are the continuation of Mr. Trowbridge's papers in the *Atlantic* and the editorial departments in *Harper's*. Mr. Trowbridge deals almost exclusively with Holmes and Longfellow, with both of whom he was thrown into very intimate relations. Like Higginson in his recent biography, he deprecates the present tendency to underrate Longfellow's poetic achievement. Aside from his more important productions, "is it not pertinent to inquire what writers of to-day, on either side of the sea, are blending thought and feeling in such forms of beauty as the 'Two Angels,' 'The Bridge,' 'The Arsenal at Springfield,' 'The Birds of Killingworth,' and a long list beside of poems as full of a wise, sweet humanity and as perfect in their art?" In the "Editor's Easy Chair" Mr. Howells discourses wittily and satirically as to what might be done with an ample financial endowment for his department, suggesting among other things a museum of literary properties for the benefit of would-be popular novelists, schemes for boiling down poetry to its real poetic content (with equitable compensation to the writers for the financial sacrifice), prizes for a system of compensation to authors on the basis of quality rather than quantity, etc. "The real Editor," as Mr. Howells calls him, contributes a page to the discussion of poetic form, setting aside the acoustic theory of Poe and Lanier as too narrow to include the most essential element of poetic rhythm. We do not find here, and perhaps it would be too much to expect, any very clear definition of this essential element without which mere acoustic perfection is in vain; but we are instructed to seek for it in a winged and vibrant thought, having the sort of meaning that prompts rhythm—thought that seizes upon and uses the acoustic element, not that is used by it.

—The Navy Department is treated by Capt. Mahan in *Scribner's* series of papers on "The Government of the United States." As might be expected, that side of the Department's work which has to do with the creation and enlargement of naval resources is put strongly in advance of the more humdrum duty of routine administration. For the purpose of developing a more definite and consecutive naval policy, Capt. Mahan would have a permanent board, purely advisory in its functions, to give constant consideration to specific needs and to problems of naval evolution in general. He does not hesitate to speak of war as "the end for which the navy exists"—a bit of frankness which many men of his own fundamental views would do well to emulate. The initial paper of Gen. Gordon's reminiscences of the civil war, in the same magazine, may be mentioned here because of the paragraphs in which he seeks to define the proper attitude of men of the present day towards that struggle. He admits that negro slavery was the cause of the war—"had there been no slavery, there would have been no war"—and, as well, that the abolition of slavery was a blessing to the South. The one side did not go into the struggle from the simple motive of its retention, nor the other from that of its abolition. The germs of the struggle were in process of development before the Union was formed, and were incorporated in the Constitution itself. Each party had ample ground in law and precedent to feel that it had legitimate and praiseworthy principles to fight for, and hence neither side should claim that it was "wholly and eternally right," nor expect the other to admit that it was "wholly and eternally wrong." Alfred Holt Stone, in the *Atlantic*, seeks to simplify the race problem by getting people to recognize in the negro not a mere lack of race development, but a permanent and radical race inferiority. The so-called achievements of the race, he holds, are achievements of mulattoes, not negroes, and due entirely to the white blood in the mulatto. This is an old fallacy, contradicted by the experience of all teachers and observers of freedmen since the war. If the tone of this paper

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fairly represents the attitude of mind of the entire Committee of the American Economic Association, appointed to investigate the condition of the American negro, a Committee to which Mr. Holt belongs, it is safe to predict that the solution of the problem has little to expect, at least in any direct way, from the action of the Committee. Mrs. John Van Vorst, in *Harper's*, brings a severe indictment against the large class of "factory girls" who work for wages, not from any real necessity, but from a desire for fine clothes, personal independence, etc. This type of worker is a rival of man to her own detriment, she thinks, and of woman to the detriment of her sex. Mrs. Van Vorst bases her article upon actual service, incognito, in the ranks of those of whom she writes. In "The Hampered Executive" Henry Loomis Nelson contributes to the *Century* a corollary to his previous paper on "The Overshadowing Senate."

—The *American Journal of Insanity* for October, 1902, contains a thoughtful article by Dr. Walter Channing, since reprinted, upon "The Mental Status of Czolgosz," President McKinley's assassin. Careful consideration of the murderer's history not developed at the trial, including his recent association with anarchists, of which only one phase was brought out by the prosecution and there was no defence, leads the author to the conclusion that this man was the victim of a delusion (in the technical sense), and therefore was insane. He dates progressive deterioration from an illness in 1898, which compelled Czolgosz to abandon regular work in a wire mill, with which he had been steadily occupied for seven years. While thus working, he had an unusually good reputation for industry and cheerfulness, and had been elected into a patriotic society, whose members were particular as to their associates. Unfortunately, it does not appear what was the nature of that illness, nor does Dr. Channing seem to connect the critical retrogression as even indirectly dependent upon a peculiar bashfulness in youth, so extreme as to suggest a want of equilibrium even then. It would look as though his original nervous equipment was insufficient to withstand the strain of the subsequent ill health. There are fair grounds for concurring in the conclusion that a serious delusion led to the tragedy; that in fact the man was insane, and that his dealings with anarchists had no causal relation to the crime. This recognition of delusional insanity by no means implies entire irresponsibility. In our own opinion this case was not one of irresistible impulse. There was a clear knowledge of an offence against society, and of possible escape from the penalty. Czolgosz told the Chief of Police that "he knew people sometimes escaped being hanged, and he might." There are other illustrations of his knowledge of the legitimate atonement and of the law's uncertainties. It would have been perfectly possible for him to refrain. Responsibility is not always lost when abnormal conceptions arise. An insane man having this margin of judgment may justly be condemned, for it is better to extinguish such a life and thus deter others who are on the same borderland, than, by clemency to the individual which is not mercy to the community, tempt other mental stragglers into similar paths. The alienist may determine where aberration begins; the courts should decide where responsibility ceases.

—'Days and Deeds,' by Mr. E. W. Howson (Rivingtons), is a calendar of anniversaries, with short, explanatory notes which are chiefly bibliographical. In its general arrangement and appearance this little volume recalls the familiar birthday book, and the sense of resemblance is not lessened when we examine the contents. Birthdays and deathdays bristle on every page, and seem to occupy more space than is devoted to political and military events. Battles, however, figure largely, and a few of the main stages in the progress of science are registered. The entries under each day vary in number from one to twelve, and seem to average about five. Mr. Howson, the editor, is a former fellow of King's College, Cambridge, and at present a master in Harrow School. That he has received some systematic training in history is evident from the character of the events which he has selected for notice. At the same time his entries are somewhat capricious, and he might have made better use of his space. In other words, he has included a good many names and events of third-rate importance while omitting those which belong to the first and second rank. Such a procedure may perhaps be justified on the ground that diversity is desirable, but it is hard to see why Dibdin and Bishop Andrewes should be included in a book in which exclusion of all save the most important is the main condition of success. Mr. Howson has apparently chosen to take what is representative rather than what is of the highest intrinsic consequence. He says: "I have endeavored to make this calendar as catholic as possible, and to include not merely biographical dates, but Church festivals and Councils, political events, legislative acts, the institution of orders and societies, battles, treaties, geographical and astronomical discoveries." Mr. Howson may be said to have attained the accuracy which should belong to timetables and date-books. Some of his citations from Greek and Roman history rest on questionable authority, but otherwise his entries are not open to serious reproach. One should be careful about speaking of Cabot's discovery of Newfoundland; the French Revolution had broken out before the storming of the Bastille; and the Holy Roman Empire came to an end in 1806, not 1804. These are minutiæ; on the whole, we have been favorably impressed by the editor's carefulness and the accuracy of the proof-reader.

—Iphigenia among the Taurians has become so associated in the popular mind with Gluck and Goethe that the original Euripides has been too much taken for granted. Yet the "Tauric Iphigenia," the last extant Greek play that deals with the tragic fortunes of the royal house of Mycenæ, is no less beautiful than the "Alcestis," and is as moving, in its way, as the "Medea." That it appeals to a modern audience was proved by the two performances given last week by the undergraduates of the University of Pennsylvania in the Philadelphia Academy of Music. The setting of the "Iphigenia" was simple—the regular background of polychromatic temple, with a single central door; the only special features being the skulls of the victims of Artemis and her bloodstained altar at the side, instead of the altar of Dionysus. There was no narrow raised stage as in the Harvard performance of the "Œdipus" in the eighties, but actors and chorus were on the same level, in accordance with the views of Dörpfeld. One does not look for antiquarian accuracy in a performance that must take account of modern æsthetics, so that no one need regret the absence of the tragic mask and cothurnus or cavil at the modern orchestra. Dr. Clarke's specially written music was admirably austere, and the evolutions of the chorus of Greek maidens, whose feminine get-up was most convincing, took account of strophe and antistrophe, and were charming as a whole. But for the most part they danced in silence, while their songs were sung by the members of a Philadelphia choral society, who sat with the audience, separated by the orchestra from the dancers. These singers would have been far more effective concealed in the wings, as was occasionally the practice on the Athenian stage. Even this criticism seems ungracious where the rest was so admirably managed. The enunciation of the Greek and the sense of the rhythm, points all-important to an Athenian audience, left little to be desired. The difficult monodies were well rendered by Orestes and Iphigenia, and the trochaic tetrameters sung by Iphigenia and Thoas were very effective. Such a performance involved an enormous amount of patience and hard work on the part of the actors, to say nothing of Dr. Lamberton and Dr. Clarke, who were responsible for the production. The Greek residents of Philadelphia showed their enthusiasm by their attendance, and by floral offerings which were displayed each night after the play.

MATHIESON'S POLITICS AND RELIGION.

Politics and Religion. A Study in Scottish History from the Reformation to the Revolution. By William Law Mathieson. 2 vols. Pp. 412, 387. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1902.

This book is written from an interesting standpoint, and its author occupies a somewhat unusual position among historians who have described the course of the Scottish Reformation. Mr. Mathieson has a predilection for the *via media*. John Knox and the Covenanters are not his heroes, nor is he willing to allow that fierceness of dogmatic conviction can atone for the lack of Christian charity. In his eyes the cause of Protestantism was best served by the friends of mildness and toleration. Turning his back on the zealots, he takes up the cause of the bishops. The very men whom Gardiner describes as "drifting helplessly like logs on the current of affairs" were, he believes, the possessors of the true light, and their tradition has prevailed. On the surface the Scottish church seems to be Presbyterian, but Mr. Mathieson maintains that its true liberalism is not traceable to a Presbyterian source. "Whilst professedly Presbyterian," he says, "the church has fallen into line with that great moderate tradition—the tradition of light and reason, of 'peace and concord, kindness and goodwill,'—which Episcopacy of the true Scottish type, from Cowper and Patrick Forbes

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to Leighton and Charteris, had endeavored to uphold."

We have read Mr. Mathieson's volumes with great enjoyment, for his liberalism is both generous and reasonable in tone. When, however, we approach the task of criticism, we find it difficult to decide whether we should lay more stress upon the positive or negative aspects of the work; upon its praise of the moderates or its condemnation of the zealots. Perhaps we shall begin best if we say that beneath the title 'Politics and Religion' there lurks the more celebrated phrase, "Church and State." The rise of theocracy, the rule of the ministers, and the decay of Puritan fanaticism were processes which involved the clergy and the Government in closest contact. The point of departure is Knox's religious egotism. As Mr. Mathieson puts it: "The chief characteristic of the Knoxian school was its determination, fixed as the stars, to make its own interpretation of the divine law prevail over every secular and over every competing religious interest." In these words is disclosed a source of ecclesiastical and political antagonism which does not run dry until the close of the seventeenth century.

Mr. Mathieson has a great affection for those who loved Scotland better than their own particular shibboleths, and among the earliest of his favorites we must name Maitland of Lethington. This brilliant personage, who possessed all the gifts and tastes of an Italian, found his lot cast by fate among the barbarian chiefs of Edinburgh, yet none the less did he play his part in earnest. Mr. Mathieson does not pretend that his political morals were perfect or that he declined to use the methods of a conspirator. In singling Maitland out from the rest of his contemporaries and giving him precedence over other politicians of the early Reformation, Mr. Mathieson credits him with a sincere idealism. According to this view his "matchless skill in diplomacy" availed him nothing, because the breadth and enlightenment of his projects made successful statesmanship impossible in such an age. He was too advanced for Scotland, and "the cold shadow of Puritanism was already creeping over the land."

No one who feels deep sympathy for the aims of Maitland can find a place in his heart for the aspirations of Knox. The two men opposed, disliked, distrusted each other, and the opposing tendencies which they represented were not to disappear in a single lifetime. Beyond all question Knox had two great virtues, zeal and honesty. Mr. Mathieson refrains from denying him these, but for the rest the deficiencies of the Reformer are made more prominent than his triumphs. By force of character he created a church, but he was totally lacking in breadth of view. Though he vindicated the moral law, he turned a deaf ear to the Christian message of love. Knox was an exponent of the Old Testament, while the Moderates took their stand upon the Gospels.

Such, in part, were the traits of Knox, but Mr. Mathieson, rising from the particular to the general and speaking more philosophically, declares that destiny misplaced him. By virtue of his talents and cast of mind he should have been solely a destroyer, but through perverted circumstance he was called upon to organize and build. He had not the tolerance which should belong to the founder of a national church. He failed to see that the Reformation was no less political than religious. From the very first he was the leader of a minority, which, however vigorous and determined, was still a remnant. He sought to dominate the State and failed, thus leaving to the future a rooted feud of Church and State. "Whatever it might be in form—and it was not till the eighteenth century that dissent could be openly avowed—the Knoxian church was essentially the church of a minority; and thus we are confronted with the singular paradox, that the man whose ideal was a theocracy, a *Civitas Dei*, has become a parent of schism, the father of Scottish dissent."

The chronological gulf between Knox and the Moderates of the seventeenth century is bridged over by Andrew Melville, the champion of Presbyterianism, and James VI., who was wont to observe, "No bishop, no king." As a great deal of misconception exists regarding the origin of Scottish episcopacy, we shall call particular attention to Mr. Mathieson's ninth chapter, entitled "Bishops and Presbyters, 1572-1625." The Reformed Church of Knox's day was neither Episcopal nor Presbyterian. It certainly inclined towards Presbyterianism, but the question was not decisively settled when Knox died. At the time of Melville's return to Scotland in 1574, the Episcopal system had been rendered scandalous by open simony (as, for example, in Morton's appointment of John Douglas to the Archbishopric of St. Andrew's), and an active crusade against it began. In July, 1580, it was condemned by the Assembly, and for thirty years "new presbyters" had all the power of old priests and prelates. James VI. had been seated upon the English throne for seven years before Episcopacy was reëstablished to the north of the Tweed.

It is the pacific spirit of these bishops who came to preside over the Scottish church in 1610 that Mr. Mathieson makes the chief object of his praise. They did not begin by declaring the *jus divinum* of episcopacy, but were quite willing to preside as Commissioners of Assembly over a Presbyterian Church. This at least was their personal disposition; and even when the Crown urged them to become partisans, they preserved the Melvillian framework of kirk-sessions, presbyteries, and synods. The thorny subject of apostolical succession was kept prudently in the background, and the people were so little constrained to kneel at communion that the practice remained almost unknown. In a word, the bishops desired compromise, or, to choose a less unpopular word, they desired a reconciliation which should exalt Christianity on the ruins of faction. One of them, William Forbes, Bishop of Edinburgh (†1634), went farther still and wished to heal the breach with Rome. "The ideal of his life," says Mr. Mathieson, "was to reconcile the Roman and Reformed communions; and to this end he made concessions which even the most moderate of his own party regarded as far too great. It was sufficiently startling to an Edinburgh audience in these days to be told from the pulpit that Christ died for all, that the Pope is not Antichrist, that a papist, living and dying as such, may be saved, that Christ is really present in the sacrament, though in what manner cannot be known." All the ritualistic bishops were Arminians, and John Crighton did not hesitate to style predestination "a doctrine rashly devised, hatched in hell, and worthy to be delete out of God's word."

It may be urged that when Forbes was making advances to the Romanists and Crighton was attacking predestination, the work of winning over the Presbyterians could have met with little success. Mr. Mathieson, however, does not "regard such men as Crighton and William Forbes, liberal and enlightened and charitable as they were, as true representatives of the Church which had emerged, weaker but infinitely wiser, from its long conflict with the State." Among the moderate Episcopalians, he finds his representative leaders in Patrick Forbes, Spottiswoode, and Cowper for the period before 1638 (when Presbytery was restored by the Puritan Revolution), and in Robert Leighton, Laurence Charteris, and James Nairn for the period after 1662 (when the bishops were brought back once more by the Restoration). The group which surrounded Leighton from 1667 to 1674 was certainly marked by a candor and far-sightedness that are most rare amid the raging feuds of prelatists and covenanters. In the words of Mr. Mathieson: "Leighton must be acknowledged to have founded anew, after it had been dissipated by the storms of the Covenant, that great body of pious, liberal, and enlightened opinion which, in the face both of episcopal and of ultra-Presbyterian secessions, has adhered to his golden rule: 'The mode of church government is immaterial; but peace and concord, kindness and good will, are indispensable.'"

Into Mr. Mathieson's account of the Covenant, the theocratic experiment (1648-51), the Pentland Rising, the Bothwell Rising, the Cameronians, and the Revolution settlement, we are unable to enter. We must be content to pause now that we have indicated his leading tenets. *Ex hypothesi*, few books can be more controversial than his, and it would be no difficult matter to cast ridicule upon the position of those whom he delights to honor. At the same time he has presented a brilliant defence of the Scottish Moderates and furnished a hard nut for the friends of Puritanism to crack.

DÖRPFELD'S TROY.

Troja und Ilion: Ergebnisse der Ausgrabungen in den vorhistorischen und historischen Schichten von Ilion, 1870-1894. Von Wilhelm Dörpfeld, unter Mitwirkung von A. Brückner, H. von Fritze, A. Götze, H. Schmidt, W. Wilberg, H. Winnefeld. Athens: Beck & Barth. 1902. Quarto. Pp. xviii., 652. With 471 illustrations in the text, 68 plates, and 8 plans and maps.

Of no other site and its history for three thousand years have we so detailed and comprehensive an account in a single book as Dr. Dörpfeld here supplies us for ancient Troy. He himself gives a history of the excavations there (pp. 1-25), a description of the buildings and fortifications of the different strata (pp. 26-242), an account of Homeric Troy (pp. 601-632), and a list of photographs and views of the ruins and discoveries (pp. 633-644)—or nearly half of the

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entire work. Schmidt writes on Trojan ceramic (pp. 243-319), with a note on the Treri or Cimmerii as the inhabitants of the Troad just before the Greek settlements of the seventh century B. C. (pp. 594-600); Götze on minor articles of metal, bone, stone, and clay (pp. 320-428); Winnefeld on sculpture and plastic (pp. 429-446), and on graves and funeral mounds (pp. 535-548); Brückner on inscriptions (pp. 447-476), and the history of Troy and Ilium (pp. 549-593); Von Fritze on the coins of Ilium (pp. 477-534). Wilberg's name stands on the title-page, though he is the author of no section of the work, since he was the assistant of Dörpfeld in studying the architecture. The book is dedicated to the German Emperor, who granted the money for the completion of the excavations, in 1894.

Originally, Dörpfeld planned to give only an account of his excavations in 1894, and their results, but wisely extended his design since his discoveries of that year could be seen in their true relations only by the light of the previous and far more extensive explorations. Schliemann's books, 'Troy and its Remains,' 'Ilios,' and 'Troja,' now have value only as chronicles of his excavations, and as giving illustrations of some objects which have not been republished; whatever scientific value they once possessed has now passed from them. Dörpfeld himself treats Schliemann very tenderly, both out of loyalty to his former chief, and from a clear appreciation of the aims and circumstances of the early excavations. His collaborators, however, are distinct in calling attention to a bronze vase in the Schliemann Museum made up of fragments from three different periods, to bronze bowls which were published as helmets, to a large dish or platter which was listed as a shield, to riveted handles which were said to be soldered, etc. The "Treasure of Priam" proves to have been found not exactly as Schliemann stated; it probably was not in a chest, but in a niche, and the copper "key" found near it now seems to be a chisel. Some of the collaborators accept Schliemann's evidence only when corroborated, or in a second class, basing their discussions on the more careful observations of 1893-94. We hear no more of "owl-headed" vases, to say nothing of the "owl-headed Athena," who was withdrawn long ago, and the name *svastika* is not so much as mentioned. Schliemann went to the Troad not as an archæologist, but as a retired man of business, with a warm admiration for Homer and a strong belief that the poet had an historical basis for his story. His sole aim was to prove that the Homeric Troy had once stood on the low hill of Hissarlik, and he assumed that this settlement was the earliest of all. So he cut a broad trench from north to south across the hill, removing about one-fourth of the remains, destroying not only Roman and Hellenic ruins, and some from the Mycenæan period, but even important foundations of the so-called Second City. He had at times 150 workmen busy in these excavations, without a single archæologist as an adviser. Only in the fifth year of his explorations (1879) did he have the counsel of two men of science—Virchow, the anthropologist, and Burnouf, the French archæologist. In 1882 he secured the services of Dr. Dörpfeld, who had been engaged for four years in the German explorations at Olympia, and who has been since 1887 the head of the Athenian branch of the German Archæological Institute, and is the highest authority on Greek architecture.

No excavated ancient site has been more complicated than Troy. The accumulated earth and ruins there, at the beginning of the excavations, were in places more than fifty feet deep. Nine distinct layers of ruins there are described, bearing the records of at least nine different settlements. One of these is further divided by Dörpfeld into three periods, and another into two. If the main facts had been understood from the first, the problem would have seemed insoluble—the scientific investigation of the lower layers without the destruction of what was important in the upper strata. Schliemann's broad trench greatly increased the difficulty of the archæologist, by removing much needed evidence. The perplexity of the problem had been made indefinitely greater by the Romans, who, with the desire to make the hill a broad sanctuary for the Ilian Athena, had levelled its top, and in the process removed from the middle of the site not merely the remains of the recent Hellenic settlement, but also those of the Mycenæan age. Thus buildings of the ninth or Roman city came to stand at this point immediately over those of the fifth or pre-Homeric city. This fact was not discovered until after Schliemann's death, although he was surprised at finding pre-historic remains so near the surface—nearer, as we know now, than they were two thousand years before.

Another complication in the problem before the modern archæologist was caused still earlier, probably about the middle of the sixth century B. C., by the removal of the north wall of the Homeric city as building material for the fortifications of the neighboring Sigeum. Other difficulties arose from the difference of thickness of the strata in different parts of the site, and from the use of the same walls, with repairs and other modifications, by succeeding generations. Dörpfeld has added to the inevitable limitations set him by the demolition of ruins before he took charge of the work, by leaving part of the site in its state of forty years ago, in order that some future generation, with more scientific methods and perfected means, may have the satisfaction of testing the work of the last few years. He has declined also to destroy some monuments of the upper layers in order to learn what lies beneath. Thus, naturally, the lowest stratum has been least explored, but fortunately this seems to be of the least interest to us.

For the early history of the citadel of Troy, and its division into periods, the architecture, and in particular that of the fortifications, furnishes the principal evidence. For the nine successive settlements which he distinguishes on this site, Dörpfeld makes an estimate in round numbers of the age of each: for the first city from 3,000 to 2,500 B. C.; the second (Schliemann's "Homeric") city from 2,500 to 2,000 B. C.; the third, fourth, and fifth cities from 2000 to 1,500 B. C.; the sixth or Homeric city, of the Mycenæan age, from 1500 to 1000 B. C.; the seventh, in two periods, from 1000 to 700 B. C.; the eighth or Hellenic city, from 700 B. C., to the Christian era; the ninth or Roman city, from the beginning of our era to 500 A. D. The round numbers indicate the lack of precision. Clearly the author thinks nothing in the way of accepting the traditional date, 1184 B. C., for the sack of Troy, and he says that the true dates of the earlier strata may differ by a millennium from his estimates.

In the Homeric city, Dörpfeld supposes the main gate and approach to the town to have been on the southeast, and that this was the "Dardanian Gate," so called as leading to the Dardanian district. The northern wall, as we have seen, was destroyed long ago, probably in the sixth century B. C., but our author is ready to accept the belief in a gate near the northwest corner of the city, which would be the Homeric "Scæan Gate," opening toward the Hellespont where lay the ships of the Greeks. To this the approach from the plain would be much steeper than to the Dardanian Gate, but on the tower by the Scæan Gate the old men and the women would stand in order to watch the conflicts on the plain below. Since Hector was slain near the Dardanian Gate, Dörpfeld believes that old Priam and Hecuba, standing by the Scæan Gate, did not see their son's death, but that their first knowledge of the catastrophe came from the sight of his body dragged to the Greek camp behind the chariot of Achilles. This is a new but entirely reasonable interpretation of the Homeric story.

Our detailed knowledge of the history of the Trojan site for the thousand years from 500 B. C. to 500 A. D. rests largely upon the evidence of coins and inscriptions, though historians and others have preserved some information. Herodotus tells of the visit and sacrifice of Xerxes on his way against Greece, Xenophon refers to a sacrifice offered by a Spartan admiral, and Arrian gives an account of the visit paid to the shrine by Alexander the Great. From the anecdote that Alexander declined an invitation to look at the lyre of Paris, but said that he should like to see that of Achilles, the inference is drawn that a museum was maintained of relics of the Trojan war. The inhabitants of New Ilium certainly claimed descent from those of the Homeric city rather than from Greeks. Hector was the hero most honored by them, and no Greek heroes appear on their coins except as vanquished in battle. From 700 B. C. to the beginning of our era, Ilium was the religious hearth of the district, and the centre of a league, but was only a small town. Alexander gave to it the privilege of coining money, which it long maintained and exercised. The work before us gives 114 cuts of coins, some of which are of real excellence. The best of the series are of the second century B. C. From their first occupation of the district, the Romans granted autonomy to the Ilians on the ground that they were their kinsmen, and these privileges were renewed and increased by Julius Cæsar, who derived his descent from the goddess Aphrodite through Æneas. The Emperor Augustus, however, is called on a coin the "founder of the city," though an accident to his daughter Julia at the crossing of the Scamander nearly brought upon Ilium a heavy fine, which was averted by Herod the Great. Marcus Aurelius rebuilt the temple and gave to it a new statue. The whole citadel was then reserved for religious purposes, and the town extended for a considerable distance at its foot. The importance of the city at

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that time is shown by the imposing remains of an aqueduct which would be no discredit to Rome itself. At no other period did the settlement cover so much ground.

The circuit of the Homeric walls is only a trifle more than a third of a mile in length, and encloses a space too small to serve as the camp or home of a large body of men, and Dörpfeld believes that, in the early form of the poet's story, the number of combatants was not nearly so large as the Homeric "Catalogue of Ships" implies, and calls attention to the fact that (according to the Iliad itself) in the next generation before the Trojan war Hercules, with an expedition of only six boats, had captured the city.

Our author expresses no view with regard to the ethnic relations of any of the early inhabitants of Ilium, nor as to the causes which led to the selection of a hill only a hundred feet in height, and no higher than parts of the surrounding plateau, as the seat of a kingdom, nor as to its sources of power and wealth. He limits himself to the discussion of that for which he has a scientific basis. Nor does he anywhere explain the double name in the title of the book, unless the explanation is indicated by a sentence which speaks of "prehistoric Troy and historic Ilion." More exact, apparently, would be *Ilios* for the Homeric city, and *Ilion* for that of later times; *Troy* is no older than *Ilium*.

With the material at his disposal, Dörpfeld has done the utmost. Though he does not shrink on occasion from expressing doubts, he accounts convincingly for nearly all the fragments of walls built at various times between 3,000 B. C. and 500 A. D. From a small portion of a building he often reconstructs the whole—just as a palæontologist will reconstruct from a single bone an animal of a long-bygone age—in a manner and with an assurance possible to no other architect. And he is a master not only of the art of architecture, but also of that of persuasion; he arranges his arguments in the most imposing and alluring form, and avoids the appearance of trying to lead the reader farther than the latter chooses to go. He has obeyed in spirit, and almost in letter, the Horatian rule for delay in publication, *nonum prematur in annum*. The excavations were completed in 1894, and this book was not published until the very last weeks of 1902. Few such works have been more carefully revised; the proofs have been read and the statements verified in the presence of the monuments, on the site of Ilium. The reviewer regrets to add that the book has no index, though this is needed.

FIRE PREVENTION.

Facts on Fire Prevention: The Results of Fire Tests Conducted by the British Fire Prevention Committee. Edited by Edwin O. Sachs, Architect. With photographs and drawings showing materials and results of tests. In two volumes, pp. xxviii., 219; vi., 226. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribner. 1902.

The British Fire Prevention Committee was founded in 1897, as we are told in the Introduction, and was incorporated in 1899. In a protesting tone, the editor, best known to American students as the author of those folios devoted to the modern theatre which appeared between 1896 and 1898, notes that no Government aid nor any public recognition of any sort had been given (June, 1902) to the committee's labors. The writer goes on to say that, in spite of this lack of encouragement, "London has become the recognized testing centre of the world as far as unprejudiced, systematic, and trustworthy reports of fire-resisting materials are concerned." Credit is given to the United States for three sets of experiments —at Denver in 1890, at Brooklyn in 1896, and at New York in 1897; and great surprise is expressed that Germany, as the country of thoroughgoing investigation, should have neglected the subject, at least so far as public notoriety goes. No mention, however, is made of that other fact, which is perhaps sufficient to account for energy in one case and for indifference in the other, viz., that Great Britain, along with the United States, suffers immeasurably more from conflagrations than does Germany. It is hardly necessary here to give the reasons, so far as discoverable, why this extraordinary difference exists; but it is a well-known fact that English building is far more commonly a matter of woodwork, or largely of woodwork, than that of any Continental nation, while in the United States, of course, building in wood is the rule, even the brick-fronted houses of the towns being all of wood within, and even the so-called fireproof buildings having still an amount of carpenter work and joiner work in their construction which would be inconceivable to a planner of equivalent buildings in Italy, France, or Germany. It is, therefore, not surprising that three investigations were held in the United States, nor that a permanently established committee is working in London. What is surprising is the apparent willingness in England and America to accept as final a tentative condition of things in which all efforts are directed towards a mitigation of the evil inherent in the old ways of buildings with great proportionate amounts of wood, both in construction and in finishing joinery, while almost nothing is said or done about replacing combustible material with that which will not catch fire.

The first volume of the work before us deals with tests of floors, ceilings, and partitions, together with one experiment on a so-called "nonflammable" wood. The second volume has to do with doors, with glazing, and with "curtains" in the sense of fire-arresting screens. It appears that a floor of steel joists, with concrete, collapsed rather quickly, though at a temperature nowhere approaching the maximum temperature allowed—2,300° Fahr. A similar test, applied to a floor of wooden joists with concrete and a ceiling of plaster applied to expanded metal, bore the maximum heat (always, by calculation and as nearly as could be ascertained, 2,300°) without serious injury. This fact had been plainly enough foreseen by architects who felt the need of precautions against burning. Thirty years before the close of the nineteenth century, the protective coverings of terra cotta, cement, wire lath with plaster, and the like were competing with one another as protections for iron work in buildings; and even then some of those architects who saw with anxiety and distress the continued and frightful loss of property and of life by fire, were convinced, and were ready to stand by their convictions, that heavy timber was a better resistant to heat than iron, even if protected by any means so far discovered. It was reasoned that a post which had a floor to carry would, if a hollow cylinder of cast iron, feel throughout its whole substance the weakening effect of the high temperature and would yield altogether, whereas the equivalent of this column in solid wood would char from without inward, and would hold a very considerable weight for hours after the charring had begun, and indeed so long as a part of the wood within remained unaffected. Wood is an excellent non-conductor of heat, and a stick of circular section eighteen inches thick would bear exposure to a very great heat, for a time so considerable that the intervention of the fire department might be almost counted on to save that pillar before it lost all its strength, whereas the cast-iron column would collapse with a very brief submission to the same degree of temperature. To this was to be added the well-known fact that the rush of cold water upon the iron would produce a further ruinous effect, whereas on the slowly charring wood it would work no injury, but would extinguish the fire and leave a certain portion of the post intact.

There was no great gift of perception needed for this, nor any ingenuity in the putting up of the heavily framed timber construction. At the very same epoch which is indicated above, the well-known "mill construction" of New England was taking shape, the investigation being pursued along nearly the same lines. In short, it appeared that those who were reasoning about the matter, being moved thereto by strong conviction and something like emotion of disgust at the "annual ash heap," were inclined to be very reluctant to use rolled or cast iron except in buildings from which all combustible material was excluded. Those, on the other hand, who were putting in iron beams, iron columns, and the rest, were often the men whom the dealers in patent materials could more easily persuade. There was a wonderful amount of pressure brought to bear upon every person connected with building—a pressure not dishonest, not unintelligent even, but which looked primarily to the increase of the dividend of the rolling-mills, of the foundries, of the many companies made up on purpose to work new processes of protection against fire. As it was about 1870, so it still is to a great extent; the world of builders is very slow to learn the lesson that iron in any form is just about the most dangerous material that can be introduced into a building unless all possibility is removed of getting up a brisk fire within the walls of that building. But that is just what the other community, the community of renters of buildings and of offices, will not put up with. The firm of lawyers, the firm of brokers, the firm of architects who hire an office, is generally made up of men who cannot conceive of comfort with other than wooden floors, with other than wooden doors, dadoes, door trims, window trims, frames, and sashes, and all the rest of it. The main structure of the building, if a modern structure, will be in nearly every case incombustible throughout; but it is overlain with

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an amount of wooden flooring carried on sleepers between which (the cement filling being omitted) there is often a series of horizontal flues each about an inch and a half by eleven inches in section, and along these the fire runs merrily and is given help to run. At each end of these flues there is wood in the form of well-oiled and well-varnished baseboards, and probably dadoes three feet high, which in their turn lead to door trims, and so on for ever. So it has been for thirty years, and so it continues to be; and now comes this London committee and tests by careful experiment a number of differing floors and partitions, and publishes the result in a series of tables.

Tables they are, and nothing else; the books consist of tables, for although there are pages of minute, detailed description of the occurrences in the course of each test, these descriptions are, of course, tabulated, in the sense that the little paragraphs dealing respectively with separate phenomena must follow each other in the order which the succession of events has dictated, and cannot be organized into a narrative. For instance, in volume ii., pages 36 to 50, are set forth the results of a double test with a two-inch framed oak door with two-inch solid panels, and a teak door of the same dimensions in every respect, and the test applied was settled to be "a fierce fire of one hour, gradually increasing to a temperature of 2,000° Fahr." It is clear that the pages describing this double test could only be of a tabular character, and indeed it will be found that many of the pages have a tabular form, the double-column arrangement being adopted for these pages only. There are a great number of photographic illustrations accompanying the account of this double test, as well as the succeeding test in which an oak door and an American walnut door were compared. It may be mentioned, by the way, that the four doors did their work about equally well—fifty-five to fifty-eight minutes limiting their resistance, counting to the moment when the door finally collapsed.

It will be seen from what has been said that there is here no treatise on the subject, and that the student who takes this book in hand must compare somewhat minutely table with table, plate with plate, doing his own little sums of subtraction to fix the amount of time consumed in each test, and not merely "draw his own conclusions," but set down on his own memorandum-papers the figures upon which his conclusions are to be based. No one, indeed, may complain of this: it is a perfectly sensible way for a student to proceed, and it is probable that most persons wishing to examine this subject thoroughly would rather receive the record of the test in this abstract form with hardly any comment, except in Mr. Sachs's introduction, than to have the whole thing reduced to the semblance of a magazine article, more readable, but not so precisely instructive.

The Oriental Series: Japan and China: Their History, Arts, and Literature. By Captain F. Brinkley. Boston: J. B. Millet Co.

Of the full dozen finely illustrated volumes in this series, eight are devoted to Japan and four to China. In the second half, issued this year, the same excellence in mechanical production of text, picture, and binding is maintained. Volume VII. deals with Japanese applied art, more especially in architecture, sculpture, decoration, and sword furnishing, and Volume VIII. with the keramic art of Japan. A work dealing authoritatively with the long story of Japanese pottery, from aboriginal baked clay and dolmen relics to the triumphs in material, decoration, and form from Satsuma and Hizen, was needed. Although there is a very respectable library of European works on the pottery and decorative porcelain of Japan, yet the astonishing inaccuracy of most of them has long been known to all serious students of the art and its history in Japan. If Captain Brinkley is sometimes rather severe upon certain authors who have posed as experts and authorities, it is because more than thirty years of critical study of the original authorities, from pen and kiln, gives him the right to speak.

He begins his accounts with the clay effigies which in primitive ages were made the substitutes for human sacrifices. He is inclined to believe that, apart from aboriginal essays, the keramic industry had a sufficiently recognized status in Japan before the advent of letters, and that it flourished chiefly in Idzumo. Japanese tradition points to the later introduction of improved shapes and of glazing from Korea. The long step in improvement was made in the eighth century, when the Buddhist priest Gyogi, who is credited with the introduction of the potter's wheel, came to Japan. He instructed the people wherever he went, not only in keramics, but also in the arts of carpentry, carving, engineering, writing, and poetry. The next great step was in the thirteenth century, when Kato the potter, having voyaged to China, and during his six years' stay learned many keramic secrets, returned to Séto, his native village in Owari, and gave new impetus to his art. After his long and industrious life, Japanese pottery became in common language "Séto ware." Besides a temple reared in his memory (a long inscription detailing his life and achievements and the preservation of his relics), the "Prince of Potters" and the "God of Kilns" has semi-annual festivals held in his honor, of which horse-racing and dancing are the chief features. The Japanese is nothing if not merry at his worship. To the wares of Hizen, Satsuma, Kioto, Kaga, Owari, and Mino, the author devotes a chapter of description, criticism, and lore very delightful to those who have feasted their eyes on the native shapes and decorations, and electrified their finger tips with the glazes. As the Greek colonist took fire from the shrine in his native city, so the Japanese travellers and diplomatists from Nippon carry to distant countries, to soften the pangs of absence, pottery made from the clay of their native land or district.

Capt. Brinkley does not pass over modern developments, but, for obvious reasons, these do not detain him long. Then the pictorial art is taken up. Interesting as this is in itself and worthy as is Brinkley's text, even after Anderson's masterly and well-nigh exhaustive catalogues and publications, and Fenollosa's subtle criticism, yet of striking, almost startling, interest are the pictures and description of the work of the painter Watanabé, who, except as Mrs. Fraser refers to him, has been passed over by modern essayists. He was the pioneer of Western influence in painting, and for this heresy he fell under political suspicion and received the fatal order to commit suicide by hara-kiri, which he gracefully accomplished. On the fiftieth anniversary of his death—that is, in November, 1890—"New Japan" did homage to his memory by exhibiting for two days at the Reigan temple in Tokio a large collection of his works. Meanwhile, the priests chanted litanies and recited mass for the repose of the ill-fated painter's soul, and the dirk with which *seppuku* had been committed rested on the original tray of white pine from which it had been taken for the final act. It is easy thus to account for that "want of receptivity" among native artists of the nineteenth century to which Dr. Anderson refers. Hokusai felt the foreign influence, but not to the point of receiving an order to open his bowels. Although there are contemporaneous artists of fame who preserve the characteristics of Japanese painting while adopting all the technical teachings of the West, Capt. Brinkley concludes that to marry Japanese pictorial art to the art of the West "would be to deprive it of its individuality and therefore of much of its charm."

In treating of bronze casting, architectural sculpture, the decoration and the multifarious applications of art, both as pure design and as representation, to the sword, the author is exceedingly felicitous. Not only is he a trained soldier and a scholar, like the Japanese samurai himself; few, perhaps, know the national and local history with more critical acumen and width of scholarship. Under his treatment, Japanese art appears as the perfectly natural outgrowth of the country and people. How the hermit islanders loved to picture the "Outside-country" men—the Dutch, the Mantchu, the Aino, the Tartar, the Formosan, the Cochin-Chinese—is told with wit and truth. The particular work of each artist receives historical treatment and just appreciation, while our author's running commentary on the works of European writers is well seasoned with the salt of criticism.

The remaining four volumes are devoted to China, and here the author naturally shows, in comparison, some limitations, which he frankly confesses. Yet, on the subject of keramic art, the writer is a master, for, besides seeing most of the originals which are described in his pages, he has been surrounded by experts in æsthetic lore. It is more than probable that, in these discussions of early and mediæval Chinese pottery and porcelain, celadons, monochromes and polychromes, and the various decorations over and under the glaze, we have a mass of critical knowledge that sums up the whole situation better than any single writing thus far attempted.

Proceeding from art to describe the features of the country, its administration, finance, and early periods of foreign intercourse, the author has the advantage of knowing much from the native writers and their works, and the best that has been produced by Occidental scholars who have lived in the country and obtained knowledge at first hand. Strange as it may seem, Capt. Brinkley, though an Englishman of strong personal tastes and ideas, does not wholly approve of the way his countrymen and others have tried to force China to adopt

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an alien civilization. His discussion, in three chapters, of "The Propaganda and Chinese Religion" is, in every sense of the word, temperate and luminous. Naturally, the most interesting portion of the concluding volume is the final chapter, entitled "To-day." The reading of it is not calculated to make one proud of the methods of Western diplomacy, although one gets the idea that in writing it the author has exercised unusual self-control. While for the loss of two hundred and thirty-seven foreign lives, the Chinese Government under compulsion ordered three suicides and three decapitations, yet on the other hand "a vast number of Chinese fell under the swords of the avenging troops; and it is undeniable that against many of these sufferers no offence could be charged except inability to exclude Boxers from their hamlets. . . . Whole districts were ruthlessly and needlessly laid waste." In the notes of the appendix, the subject receives fuller treatment: "The seeds of hatred sown in that evil time must add their quota to the crop of tares that overgrows so much of the story of foreign intercourse with China. . . . The Far East, then, is the storm centre of the world to-day."

Besides the notes, chronological tables, and abundant and well-made indexes, there is an excellent map of the Chinese Empire, Korea and Japan, which shows the railways both complete and projected.

The Dukhobors. By Joseph Elkinton. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach.

Those who are interested in that now famous sect, the Dukhobortzi (commonly abbreviated into Dukhobors), cannot do better than read Mr. Elkinton's account of their settlements in Canadian territory. Mr. Elkinton is a Quaker, and his fellow-religionists have taken particular charge, so to speak, of these Russians, who hold views akin to their own as to bearing arms, and in their general lack of ceremonies, notably in the contraction of marriages. The author is, obviously, more accustomed to perform good deeds than to prepare a book of reference, although that is, practically, what his work is intended to be. The reader should make marginal notes in order to refind his desired statements of fact, as events follow neither a chronological nor any other definite order, and many are repeated, as though the present volume consisted of a collection of articles written at different times and not thoroughly revised. The numerous pictures add to the interest and value; but beyond these the reader must accept as entirely authoritative nothing except the description of the Dukhobors' life, manners, and principles in their present home. Had the author had access to the Russian view of the situation in Russia, the internecine quarrels over money between Verigin and his rivals, the mutual denunciation to the authorities of the two parties (which cupidity and treachery were the cause of the whole trouble that ended in the famous exodus); and had he explained these matters from the Dukhobor point of view and (if possible) justified them, the historical as well as the sociological and human worth of his book would have been immeasurably enhanced. However individual the above-mentioned actions may have been, their momentous effect on the whole community is self-evident; and the lack of explanation vitiates the statement of the events which underlie the present situation, and renders this account as one-sided and partisan as the isolated statement of the Russian point of view would be.

Neither need the summary of Russian history, which is appended, either to increase the size of the book or as a necessary corollary in the author's mind, be taken seriously. It shows lack of study and comprehension, quite naturally. As the author himself says of the Dukhobors: "Divine truth is frequently so associated with human error, even in the most devout minds, that we shall always need to separate and cherish the spiritual purpose and ideal, apart from its expression." One thing is certain: aside from their rebellion against the constituted authorities, which effected their emigration from Russia, and which the Canadian Government is now engaged in contending with, these people possess many and admirable virtues. To their kindliness, hospitality, and lack of rancor towards Russia, the Russian Bishop of North America has recently borne witness. While engaged in a pastoral visit to some Bukovinians near one of the Dukhobor settlements (these were not among the fanatics who "sought Christ" last autumn, by the way, but the more rational contingent), the Bishop called on the Dukhobors. He told them who he was (and his garb of itself showed his calling); but he was cordially received, treated to sour cabbage, black bread, and tea—out of deference to Lent they chose the suitable viands—and to the singing of Russian ballads by their maidens. Among the latter was one, "The voice of our petition has reached the Tsar," and neither in this, nor in what they said, did any hostile or unpleasant spirit toward Russia manifest itself.

Mr. Elkinton admits that the sect has erred in the past, and he thinks it likely that there may be further disintegration in the future. He is quite sure that they will never become paupers, and that the unprecedented aid which has been rendered them has been well bestowed; in which the reader will agree with him. His full statement of their contentions with the Canadian Government is, perhaps, the most valuable feature in the book, both in its authoritativeness and in its complete frankness and fairness. He also sets forth the origin and progress of the regrettable march in search of Christ last autumn, and attributes much of the trouble which has arisen, so far, in the communities, to the malignant efforts of a professional agitator; in which he is probably right, given the admirable character, in most respects, of these Dukhobors as a whole. He also admits that "they have been driven into a false position toward all government, and the writings of Count Tolstoy and his followers have emphasized this disposition." Had he but explained that most interesting point, how Tolstoy came to be connected with their religious opinions, his book would have filled a want which the public has felt ever since the Dukhobors began to be prominent. But this belongs to the side of his subject of which Mr. Elkinton is blissfully ignorant—the Russian side.

Despite its defects and lack of coherent arrangement, the volume contains many valuable facts, worthy to be culled out and perpetuated.

The Eldorado of the Ancients. By Dr. Carl Peters. With two maps and 97 illustrations. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902. Pp. x., 447. 8vo.

This is practically a prospector's report of the results of his search for gold-fields in South Africa. The author spent two years in the lower Zambesi region, appropriating territory and registering claims for the "Dr. Carl Peters's Estates and Exploration Company." Of his success he apparently has no doubt, for he affirms of one of the properties acquired, "The Windâhgil Mine, especially as regards the richness of its ore, is second to none in the whole world." We confess to a slight feeling of surprise that he makes no offer to his readers of a limited number of shares at a price much below the value which they will have when put upon the open market. It is difficult to feel much interest in a book written with this object, and Dr. Peters has not the literary ability to make the narrative of his uneventful journeys in a comparatively well-known country entertaining. He himself figures largely in it, even to the extent of three full-page portraits. One of his first acts on reaching the field of his labors was to name a prominent height Mount Peters, and his pages contain numerous personal references and irrelevant extracts from his diary, together with tediously minute details as to the lay of the land and its geological formation.

Following the narrative are six short chapters containing, with many quotations from ancient and modern writers, Dr. Peters's reasons for believing this region to be Ophir and the goal of the voyages to Punt. We have been unable to discover that he has added anything of material importance to what has been said on these subjects, but we readily grant, to use his own words, that his discoveries have "thrown new light on the ruins of Inyanga, and established that ancient copper-mines exist on the Sabi. By their means I believe that I have contributed something towards the unravelment of the Himyaritic era of South African history." He points out, in some concluding chapters upon the present condition and future prospects of Rhodesia, a great mistake in its founders in that their efforts were directed exclusively to the development of its mineral resources, the construction of roads and the building of towns, to the neglect of all provision for cultivating the soil. In consequence, in the summer of 1901, there was a state of general want, "even of poverty." Dr. Peters characterizes the genuine Rhodesian as one who is in the habit of waiting for a "boom" in the bar of a public house in Buluwayo, Salisbury, or Umtali. He condemns the system of granting extensive concessions "under which groups of capitalists who do not want to take part in the actual work of developing these regions, settle down on large land and mining rights, and by this means keep smaller men from proceeding with the real working of the country." But apparently he lays his company open to the same charge, for he registered 280 mining claims in three districts only of the many in which he prospected. His solution of the labor problem is to force the negro "to devote some twelve years of his life to working for the Government. During this time he should receive food and shelter, and a small wage, say about two shillings a month, like the Prussian soldier. He should

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have Sunday for himself, he should be allowed to marry, he should be treated humanely and justly. The labor thus obtained should be contracted out by the Government to private enterprises." Although he here advocates just and humane treatment of the natives, in his own dealings with them he showed, in our opinion, a criminal indifference to their true welfare, especially by frequently giving them liquor. Any one who is familiar with the facts of Dr. Peters's career as an explorer and German official in East Africa must regret, for the natives' sake, his reappearance in South Africa though in the humbler guise of a gold-hunter.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ade, George. People You Know. R. H. Russell.
Alden, R. M. English Verse. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Augier, E., and Foussier, E. Un Beau Mariage. Henry Holt & Co. 35 cents.
Bachelor, Ann. Thoughts from Emerson. Boston: James H. Earle & Co. 75 cents.
Bashford, H. H. Tommy Wideawake. John Lane.
Bell, J. T. Civil War Stories. San Francisco: Whitaker & Ray Co. $1.
Bierwirth, H. C. Beginning German. Henry Holt & Co. 80 cents.
Boult, Katharine F. Heroes of the Norselands. (Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Byrum, E. E. What Shall I Do to Be Saved? Moundsville (W. Va.): Gospel Trumpet Publishing Company.
Challis, J. C. Indian Summer, and Other Poems. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.50.
Ellis, E. S. Historical Readings Illustrative of American Patriotism. Silver, Burdett & Co. 60 cents.
Gratacap, L. P. The Certainty of a Future Life in Mars. Brentano's.
Greaves, Richard. Brewster's Millions. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Gregory, Eleanor C. Selections from the Works of Palestrina: Mass: Confitebor tibi, Domine. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d.
Hart, Mabel. Sacrilege Farm. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Haskins, C. W. How to Keep Household Accounts. Harpers.
Hendrick, B. A. How to Study Literature. Hinds & Noble.
Holt, L. E. The Care and Feeding of Infants. Revised edition. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Hugo, Victor. Les Misérables. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Jackson, Katherine H. M. Summer Songs in Idleness. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Kummer, H. T. Semanoud. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Loveman, Robert. The Gates of Silence, with Interludes of Song. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Luther, Martin. Christian Liberty. New ed. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society.
MacGrath, Harold. The Grey Cloak. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company.
Mallik, M. C. The South African Problem. London: P. S. King & Son.
Manderson, C. F. The Twin Seven-Shooters. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.
Mathers, E. P. The Story of "South Africa," Newspaper. London: "South Africa."
Meade, E. S. Trust Finance. D. Appleton & Co.
Miller, Olive T. True Bird Stories from My Note-books. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Noyes, W. A. A Text-Book of Organic Chemistry. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Phillips Brooks as his Friends Knew Him. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. 75 cents.
Phillips, S. L. The Testimony of Reason. Washington: Neale Pub. Co. 50 cents.
Pope, Alexander. Complete Poetical Works. (Cambridge Edition.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Roberts, Harry. The Tramp's Handbook. (The Country Handbooks.) John Lane.
Roberts, I. P. The Farmer's Business Handbook. Macmillan.
Roseboro, Viola. The Joyous Heart. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Saintine, X-B. Picciola. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Mérimée, Prosper. Colomba. 40 cents.
Schinz, Albert. Colomba. Prosper Mérimée. 40 cents.
Shakspere, W. The Tragedie of Macbeth. (The Elizabethan Shakspere.) Edited by Mark Harvey Liddell. Doubleday, Page & Co. Edition de luxe. $12.50.
Snow, C. H. The Principal Species of Wood: Their Characteristic Properties. John Wiley & Sons. $3.50.
Snow, W. B., and Lebon, C. B. Easy French. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Street, C. S. Whist Up to Date. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Surveying as Practised by Civil Engineers and Surveyors. London: Crosby, Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $4.
Temple Classics: (1) Lays of Ancient Rome. T. B. Macaulay; (2) The Borough: A Poem. George Crabbe; (3) The Bee and Other Essays. Oliver Goldsmith. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents each.
The Reflections of a Lonely Man. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Townsend, Harriet A. Every Day with Emerson. Buffalo: The White-Evans Penfold Company.
Weed, C. M. The Flower Beautiful. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Westcott, Arthur. Life and Letters of Brooke Foss Westcott. 2 vols. Macmillan.
Wright, H. B. That Printer of Udell's. Chicago: The Book Supply Company. $1.50.

"It is to be wished that the ruthless devourers of the novels that sell by the hundred thousand would turn aside for the moment to such a book as 'LORD LEONARD THE LUCKLESS,'* and make acquaintance to their intellectual profit with it," says *The Providence Journal*, in an editorial headed "The Two Norrisses."

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